

DE BOW'S
SOUTHERN AND WESTERN
REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

NOVEMBER, 1851.

VOL. XI, O. S.]

ENLARGED SERIES.

[VOL. I, No. 5.]

ART. I.—THE EMPIRE OF RUSSIA.*

EXTENT OF THE EMPIRE—ORIGINAL INHABITANTS—PERIOD OF THE FORMATION OF THE RUSSIAN STATE—THE HOUSE OF RURIK—EXTENSION OF THE KINGDOM—THE HOUSE OF ROMANOW—THE PERIOD OF THE CONSOLIDATION AND CIVILIZATION OF THE EMPIRE—EXTENSION IN THE WEST AND IN THE EAST, ESPECIALLY UNDER KATHARINE II—RUSSIA THE LEADING POWER IN CONTINENTAL EUROPE—THE PANSLAVIC MOVEMENT, &C., &C.

WE design a series of papers upon the great powers of the world. We began with *TURKEY* in our March No., and now present *RUSSIA*. The *statistics* of the Russian Empire must be postponed to our next.—[EDITOR.]

The Russian Empire is one of the most powerful of either ancient or modern times. In extent it surpasses every empire which has yet existed, except that of the immediate successors of the Tartar *Tchingis Khan*. In population it ranks next, among the European powers, to the thickly-peopled empire of Great Britain. It includes nearly one-seventh of the terrestrial part of the globe, or about 88,552,700 square miles, and is inhabited by 65,000,000 of people. Great Britain, with all its territorial possessions and colonies, includes an area of 4,686,000 square miles, supporting a population of 139,000,000. Thus the Russian, though containing but half the number of people, occupies

* 1. *Russia*, by J. G. Kohl. London: Chapman and Hall, 1842.

2. Articles on *Russia* in the *Edinburgh Review*, (April, 1844,) and the *Quarterly Review*, (February, 1810).

3. *Turkey and Christendom*, an article in the *Edinburgh Review* for January, 1850, in which the relations of Russia with Turkey are briefly but well delineated.

4. *Russian Aggressions in the East*, an article published in the *United Service Magazine*, and reprinted in *Little's Living Age* for March 23, 1850.

nearly twice the area of the British empire. By far the greater portion of this immense territory, however, is nearly uninhabited and quite sterile, on account of the extreme severity of the climate in the regions contiguous to the Arctic ocean. On the other hand, Russia has the advantage of Great Britain in respect to consolidation. It comprises the entire northern portion of the eastern hemisphere, stretching without interruption from the 18th to the 190th degree of east longitude, a distance on the 60th parallel of nearly 6000 miles; and from the 38th to the 70th, and in some places to the 78th parallel of latitude, an average breadth of 1,500 miles. Besides this, Russia owns a large tract in the northwest part of North America, Nova Zembla, and other large islands in the Arctic Sea, the Aleutian islands off Kamtchatka, and the isles of Aland in the Baltic. The larger portion of this extensive territory lies in the north of Asia, and is known by the name of Siberia; the next in extent is that part which is situated in Europe, and to this the term Russia is in general understood to apply. This, the most important part of the empire, known by geographers as Russia in Europe, is separated from Asiatic Russia by the Ural Mountains on the east and the Caucasus on the south; and is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the south by the Black Sea, and on the southwest and west by Turkey in Europe, the Austrian empire, and the kingdom of Prussia. With an area of 2,099,903 miles, it contains 61,000,000 inhabitants.

The Russians belong in general to the Caucasian type of humanity, excepting, in Europe, only the Kalmucks, and in part the Baschkirs, who are Mongolians. This Mongolian element does not amount altogether to more than a sixtieth part of the population, even when including in it, as some do, the Laplanders and Samoiedes, who, however, are not Mongolians, but descendants of the ancient Finns, the *Fenni* of Tacitus, who are Caucasians. The remaining portion are descendants of the Scythian branch of the Indo-European stock of nations, which latter is the more important of the two main ethnographical divisions of the Caucasian variety of the human species. The ancient Scythians dwelt, or rather roamed, in that part of Europe which lies east of the Vistula and the Carpathian Mountains, and in the northern half of Asia, as far as its centre, where they were met by the Mongolians, who overspread eastern Asia to the Pacific. These Scythians are now divided, and have been from the beginning of history, into two branches, the European and the Asiatic; the former and most important branch of which is known by the appellation of *Slavonians*; the latter by that of *Tartars*, or Turks. The Slavonic race occupies to this day almost the whole of eastern Europe, numbering in all 78,691,000; of this number, 53,502,000 are inhabitants of Russia, which is, therefore, the representative, *кар' Россия*, of the Slavonians, as it is in some respects of the Tartar branch of the wide-spread Scythian hordes of Eastern Europe and Northern Asia.*

* The human family is divided into three distinctly marked species, the *Negro*, of Africa; the *Mongolian*, of eastern Asia and America; and the *Caucasian*, of western Asia and Europe. Of these three varieties the Caucasian has thus far shown itself to be the superior; and is in fact that to which civilisation in its highest developments has been wholly

Ancient writers enumerate several tribes which belonged to what we call the Slavonian race. Their specific name appears to have been among the Greeks, *Ἑσροί*, whence the Latin, *Veneti*; among the Germans, *Wenden*; among the Scandinavians, *Vanar*; among themselves, *Serbi*, or *Sirbi*. The name Slavonians, by which they are now called, is most probably of late origin, being derived either from the native word *Slava* (glory), or from *Slovo* (speech). Ptolemy (A. D. 140) calls them *ἱστροὶ φύλιστοι* (a very great nation); and Procopius (A. D. 550) speaks of them as a "populous nation, inhabiting spacious territories." Their chief seats lay to the north of the Euxine (Black Sea) and the Carpathians, and between the Baltic and the Volga. Herodotus, (B. C. 443) gives a description of them under the titles of Sauromatai, (*Σαυρομάται*), whence the name Sarmatians, whom he locates east of the Don, and Scythians, (*Σκύθαι*), whom he places west of the Don, between that river and the Carpathian Mountains. His account, in the opinion of some, favors the supposition of a Mongolian origin for these tribes: but this hypothesis is disproved by abundant historical and linguistic facts.*

The ancient Slavonians were tall and strongly made, fairer than the Mongols, but darker than the Germans, having black eyes, small, and deeply sunk, and hair of a reddish brown color. Their habits were eminently nomadic; and they were, like most roving tribes, im-

confined. It is itself divided into two families, the *Semitic*, to which belong all the races of the Arabic type; and the *Indo-European*, to which belong those peoples who speak the different dialects of the language of which the Sanscrit is the recognized representative. The Indo-European family is again subdivided into four distinct races:—1. The *Armenian*, whose seat is the neighborhood of the Caspian sea; 2. The *Scythian*, whose locality is indicated in the text; 3. The *Pelasgic*, found at an early period in Asia Minor, the islands of the Egean, Greece, Italy, and other parts of southern Europe; 4. The *Indo-Persic* race proper, stretching in Asia from the Caspian to the Bay of Bengal, and the parent in Europe of the Celts of Gaul, Spain, and Britain, and of the Germans of Central Europe, and the Scandinavian peninsula. For historical purposes this division is usually sufficiently exact. It is highly probable, however, that the Indo-European languages all derived their original elements from this cradle of the Indo-Persic race proper; for the best authorities regard *Iran*, a country lying between the Caspian and the Indian Ocean, and the Euphrates and the Indus, the original home of the Indo-Europeans.—(Donaldson, *New Cratylus*, p. 80, ss.).

The original population of Europe was, it would seem, *Finnish* tribes, sprung from the primitive nations of Southern India. They are now represented by the Laplanders and Samoiedes of Russia, and their language has been shown to be closely related to the Celtic. (Prichard, *Phys. Hist. of Mankind*, vol. 4, p. 605; Arndt, *Ursprung d. Europ. Sprachen*, p. 17, ss.) To the Finns succeeded, after a long interval, the *Celts*, coming from the east and moving over to the west; to the Celts succeeded the *Teutonic*, or *German* tribes; to the *Germans*, the *Slavonians*; to the *Slavonians*, the *Pelasgians*. The languages of all these races have been satisfactorily shown to have proceeded from the same original. Subsequently to their successive migrations from Iran, these tribes intermingled in various proportions, and from this intermixture arose the nations and languages of Europe now existing. The order in which the races succeeded each other in migration, is relatively the same as that of their present habitations. The Finns have been merged almost wholly among their Celtic conquerors; the Celts occupy Western Europe as far as the Rhine; the Germans, or Teutonic tribes, reside between that river and the Vistula; the Slavonians, in the country lying between the Vistula and Central Asia; while the Pelasgians are disseminated through the south of Europe.

* The name Scythians (*Σκύθαι*), was applied to these nomadic hordes by the Greeks. They called themselves, according to Herodotus, (4 b.) *Scoloti* (*Σκόλοτοι*), a term which Von Hammer (*Origines Russes*) thinks kindred with *Sakalib* from *Sakalob* or *Scoklob*, a name by which eastern writers designate the *Turks*, and these *Sakalib*, they say, are the *Sakai* (the Persian name for Scythians, Herod. 7, 64.) of the Greeks. Von Hammer thinks that the term *Slavonian* is derived from *Σκωλον*.

patient of control. No people more thoroughly hated despotic power, a note-worthy fact, when we consider the present condition of their descendants. Each village, or tribe, was independent. Their rulers and dignitaries seem to have been, at first, to some extent, chosen by popular election. The government was managed by popular assemblies, in which, however, the patriarchal element predominated. In war they were brave; in peace, of mild manners and disposition. They were fond of music, the national *gusla*, of horses, and of mead. In religion, they were polytheists.*

As time advanced, the Slavonians became more settled in their habits, gathering into groups, and inhabiting fixed residences, which, in the course of years, were augmented into towns and cities. Towards the close of the Roman period, (550,) there were as many as 4,000 villages scattered within the space afterwards known as Russia and Poland. Separate nationalities were formed at length, which, after a time, figured in history as Russia, Poland, and Bohemia.—While these states were yet in process of formation, however, an irruption of Huns, a Mongolian, or Calmuck people, burst from the east, under Attila, (A. D. 433,) and desolated not only most of the Slavonic, but the German provinces of Europe. But the empire of Attila fell to pieces at his death, (453.) The more northern settlements, moreover, had escaped his ravages. Novgorod, on the Volga, and Kiev, on the Dnieper, flourished, undisturbed in their trading operations, for which they were, even at this early day, distinguished.†

The time for their subjection, nevertheless, arrived at last. Invasion by the Northmen, or Normans, of Scandinavia, rolled over to Russia, as it had previously to other countries of Europe. About the year 850, *Rurik*, a Baltic rover, invited over, it is said, by the people themselves, established a Norman dynasty at Novgorod. Kiev was soon after taken by his step-son, Oskold. In a few years Rurik's dominion extended over all Russia. The rule of his family lasted seven centuries. Almost immediately the power of Russia, so called now for the first time, by the Greeks, became formidable to the Byzantine empire.‡ Five times within a century were the Russians con-

* *Biel Bog*, (the white god,) and *Cherni Bog*, (the black god,) represented respectively the good and evil principles. They worshiped, also, *Perun*, the god of thunder; *Rugivri*, the war god; *Proven*, the god of justice; *Porenut*, the god of seasons; *Volos*, of flocks; *Radevast*, of hospitality; *Koleda*, of festivals; *Kupala*, of fruits. Though polytheists, they believed, at least the wiser part, in one Supreme God.

† *Novgorod*, a city whose foundations were laid before the time of Rurik, was a commercial republic, for many years important and powerful. Its strength is indicated by the haughty proverb, "Who can resist God and the great Novgorod?" The republic was suppressed in 1475 by Ivan I. Kiev was also a commercial city, and the metropolis of the empire. In 1018 it contained more than three hundred churches, and was said to rival Constantinople itself. (Gibbon, *Roman Empire*, chap. lv, vol. 4, p. 48, New-York ed. '44.)

‡ It is a curious fact, that the name Russian was known and applied to a tribe of the Scythians as early as the time of Ezekiel, (about 600 B. C.) The connection in which they are mentioned by Ezekiel (xxxviii. 2, 3; xxxix. 1,) shows their Scythian origin. He speaks of "Gog, of the land of Magog, the prince of *Rosh*, Meshech and Tubal." The best writers all agree that by Magog, both here and in Gen. x. 2, is meant the Scythians; and the other nations mentioned by Ezekiel, are evidently kindred tribes. The received version, instead of "Prince of *Rosh*," reads "the chief prince," an error of translation. (Robinson, *Hebrew Lexicon*, p. 965. Boston, '44; and Gesenius, *Thesaurus*, p. 1253.)

ducted to the siege of Constantinople,—and five times they failed. These hostile attacks were brought to a close in 955, on the conversion of *Olga*, Rurik's daughter-in-law, to Christianity. In the time of *Vladimir*, 988, her grandson, who married a daughter of the Greek emperor, Christianity was introduced into the kingdom, as the national religion, by special edict.

On the death of Vladimir his empire was divided among his twelve sons, (1015.) The power of Russia at once declined. Amid the distraction of the divided kingdom, the seat of government was removed (1170) from Kiev to Vladimir, thus cutting off the Russians from the rest of Christendom. Disorganized as it was, the kingdom fell an easy prey to the Tartar army which *Oktai*, the son of the world-renowned butcher, *Tchingis Khan*, had sent from Asia (1236) to the conquest of the West.* All Eastern Europe became, in six years, subject to the rule of the Tartars. On the death of *Kublai Kahn*, (1294,) this Tartar empire was dissolved; but Russia remained subject to its western division, Kiptchak; and so continued for two centuries, ruled nominally by grand-princes of the house of Rurik, but languishing under Tartar despotism.

The grand-princes of Vladimir, the capital of the grand-duchy to which the other Russian princes owed allegiance, becoming extinct, (1326,) those of Moscow succeeded to their dignity. Gradually rising to power, they subjected, in the person of *Ivan I.*, (1462,) son of *Vasilei III.*, the other princes, and threw off the Tartar yoke (1477–1480.) Under *Ivan* the various parts of the dismembered kingdom were re-united, and a new and consolidated empire formed. Guided by him, Russia first took her place among the sovereignties of Europe; and her career as a nation commenced. About the same time, the three chief kingdoms of continental Europe were taking upon them a definite and fixed character, for *Ivan* was contemporary with *Louis XI.* of France, *Ferdinand* of Spain, and *Maximilian* of Austria. Constantinople had fallen, (1453,) and was now occupied by a race of foreign origin and alien religion. *Sophia*, the last of its princesses,

Rosh, then, is doubtless, equivalent to the term (σι 'Ρός) by which the Byzantine writers designate the Russians. *John Fossan*, an Arabian writer of the 10th century, describes them as dwelling on the Don, and calls them *Rus*. (Hitzig, *Der Prophet Ezechiel*, in *loca*; Winer, *Bibl. Realwörterbuch*, art. *Ros*, vol. 2. p. 399.)

* The conquests of *Tchingis Khan* and his successors, (1227–1279,) included the greater part of the known world. They were made at a vast expense of blood, and amid general destruction. Even now, after six hundred years, the traces are not obliterated. The conquerors were human butchers. *Oktai*, after he had conquered northern China, proposed seriously in his council to exterminate the entire population of this thickly-inhabited country, in order to make it a vast free pasture for Tartar herds. The representations and entreaties of a wise and patriotic Chinese Mandarin, respected by the Khan, could with difficulty prevent the proposed desolation. (Gibbon, *Roman Empire*, chap. 64, vol. 4, pp. 242–257.)

The army sent by *Oktai* to the conquest was commanded by his nephew, *Batu*, and numbered, it is said, 500,000 men. The whole army under *Oktai's* command was composed of 1,500,000 Tartars and Moguls. In less than six years *Batu* marched through ninety degrees of longitude, conquering all opposition and desolating the country. Russia, Poland, Silesia, Hungary, Servia, Bosnia, and Bulgaria were overrun and laid waste. The cloud of barbarism was settling over Eastern Europe, and even threatened to overshadow the West, when it was opportunely dissipated by German valor. The Tartars retreated before *Frederick II.* beyond the Volga, but Russia remained subject to their sway (Von Rotteck, *Weltgeschichte*, Eng. trans. vol. 1. p. 311.)

had become the wife of Ivan. The new monarch looked to the future as well as the present. Besides making acquisition of territory in Lithuania, Finland, and Siberia, by which his kingdom was enlarged, he founded many institutions beneficial to the country, and fairly earned for himself the honor of being the founder of the Russian empire. As yet, however, the kingdom comprehended but little more than the territory lying between the Dnieper and the Don; but it was formidable from the spirit of conquest which pervaded the nation, as well people as rulers.

Ivan was succeeded by his son *Basilei*, who effected a more complete union of the Russian countries, (1505-1533.) The title of Grand Prince, *Veliki-Kniez*, hitherto applied to the sovereign, was changed by him to *Czar*, (Emperor.)

But it was under his son and successor, *Ivan II.* that Russia began to assume its present colossal dimensions, (1533-1584.) For fifty years he was engaged in making conquests. The khannat of Kiptchak and that of Turan were reduced to subjection. Kasan, once subjugated by Ivan I., having rebelled, was now completely subdued, and made part of the empire, (1552.) Astracan, two years after, submitted to the same fate. The Tartars of Crimea, the Baschkirs, and other hordes of the eastern desert, as also the Samoiedes of the north, obeyed the laws of their Muscovite conqueror. The Cossacks of the Don, robber subjects of Ivan, breaking into Siberia, imposed the yoke of the Czar upon numerous Tartar, and even Mongol tribes of that country. Under the next monarch, the homage of all the nations as far as the Yenissei was exacted; and at a still later period, the whole country as far as the ocean on the east, and the Chinese boundary on the south, was forced to yield obedience.

In Livonia, on the other hand, the progress of Ivan, surnamed the "Terrible," received a check. Fifty years before, Ivan I. had attempted to conquer the country, and failed. His grandson now renewed the contest, (1558,) opposed by Poland and Sweden. For more than twenty years the country was drenched with blood. Pressed on every side, the Czar was forced, at last, not only to resign Livonia to the Poles, but Karelia and Ingria to the Swedes, (1582.) A few years later, under Ivan's successor, the war with Sweden was renewed. At length (1595) Karelia and Ingria were restored, but Esthonia and Narva were ceded to the Swedes. Ivan II. was a wise prince, and labored, as did afterwards Peter the Great, for the advancement of his subjects in civilization and the arts. He published a new criminal code, and ordered a collection of civil laws, (*Sudebnik*) to be made. Commerce and industry in general were encouraged, and a printing establishment, the first in Russia, was formed by his order, (1564,) at Moscow. All, however, was the kindness of despotism, not of freedom. The mass of the people had no political power, the nobles and the clergy but little: all was concentrated in the Czar.

On the death of Ivan, *Feodor*, his youngest son, ascended the throne. A weak prince, he left the government to his brother-in-law, *Boris Ghodunow*; his own brother, named Demetrius, had been put to death, perhaps by his command. *Feodor* dying, (1588,) the house

of Rurik, in the male line, became extinct. Boris was thereupon elected Czar by the chief men of the nation; but he was soon supplanted (1605) by a false Demetrius. The kingdom was now distracted by internal dissensions. Demetrius being defeated the next year, his conqueror, Schuiskoy, was called by a party to the throne. The troops of Poland and of Sweden seized the occasion to march into the unhappy country, pretending support to one and another claimant of the throne, but really intent on conquest. Moscow having been captured by the Poles, they caused their prince, Vladislav, son of their king Sigismond, to be elected Czar. Schuiskoy applied to Sweden for aid, and obtained it to his own destruction. Marching in as if to his assistance, the Swedish king, Charles IX., overthrew him, (1610,) and, having taken Novgorod, would have elevated his second son, Charles Philip, to the vacant throne; but death put an end to his ambitious projects, (1611.)

Alarmed at the attempts of Sigismond to supplant the Greek church in favor of the Roman, the Russians were at length aroused in earnest. Led on by patriots, they rushed resistlessly against the Polish invaders, and drove them out of the empire. Deputies of the clergy, nobility and cities, being thereupon (1613) convoked, *Michael Federowitsch*, of the house of *Romanow*, a grandson of Ivan II. by the mother's side, was unanimously elected Czar, with all the powers of his predecessor, and with the right of succession for his descendants forever. Michael attempted to confine the storm which was shaking his empire by prudence and moderation. The war with Sweden was brought to a close by the resignation of Ingria and Karelia, (1617;) that with Poland, by the cession to that power of Smolensk, Severia, and Tschernichow, in consideration of which Vladislav renounced his claim to Russia.

Michael's son and successor, *Alexei*, (1645-1676,) having succeeded, by his energy and discernment, in restoring the kingdom to order and tranquillity, undertook an expedition against Poland, then suffering an invasion from the Swedes, and forced it (1667) to restore all the possessions which it had, not only in the late war, but at any time, acquired in Russia. The occasion of the war was a rebellion of the Cossacks, a warlike people, who lived on both banks of the Dnieper, in Ukraine, (Podolia and Volhynia.) They had been, since the 15th century, dependent on Poland; but rebelling on account of oppression, they sought the protection of the Czar, (1654,) who gladly seized the opportunity of despoiling a rival and a hated kingdom of part of its territories. Poland agreed to the division of the Cossacks with Russia, and yielded back all her previous conquests in the Russian empire.

The Polish Cossacks again rebelled, (1672,) and submitted to the Turks, who were in consequence drawn, not unwillingly, into a war with Poland. At first the Porte was victorious, though opposed also by Russia, for the nonce, in alliance with Poland. The Cossacks were freed by the Polish king, and a tribute agreed to be paid to Turkey, (1672,) but at length (1676) the tribute was remitted, and only Kamienek and a third part of the Ukraine retained by the

Sultan. This third part, however, was soon wrested from the Porte by the Czar, to whom it was specially ceded by the truce of Radzyn, (1680.)

Alexei was succeeded by his son *Feodor*, the second of that name, a wise and active prince, (1676-1682.) On his death-bed he appointed *Peter*, his younger and only half brother, his successor, in preference to Ivan, who was blind, and of feeble intellect. But Sophia, Ivan's sister, excited an insurrection of the *Strelzi* (the imperial guard) in his favor, who proclaimed him Czar with Peter, and Sophia co-regent. On the insidious attempt of the latter to usurp the government, Peter, who was destined by her to death, sent her to the cloister, and himself assumed the control of the empire, (1689.) Yet Ivan was called Czar till his death, (1696.)

Meanwhile a new war of European interest had broken out between Turkey and Austria, in which the latter power was aided by Poland and Russia. The arms of the Muscovites made conquests among the Tartars of the Ukraine, (1688;) and Azov was besieged and taken, (1696.) These conquests Russia retained on making peace with the Porte, (1698,) and acquired, also, freedom of trade on the Black Sea.

The eighteenth century was ushered in by a war of such importance for the north of Europe as no other contest had been. It lasted for twenty-five years, and resulted in a permanent change of the relations of the northern European powers. The chief actors in the struggle were Charles XII. of Sweden and Peter of Russia; both men of energy and fixedness of purpose; but the one the slave of passion, the other the disciple of reason. Peter possessed the largest, but Charles the best ordered state in the north of Europe. Charles had a full treasury and an excellent navy and army; Peter had not a war-vessel, and, as yet, no disciplined army; but, what was better, he had a nation, powerful in its native strength, and numerous, devoted to his service, a host of soldiers, ready to die at his command.

Determined on extending his kingdom to the Baltic, the Czar readily joined a league with Denmark and Poland against Sweden, (1700.) The war was one of aggrandizement on the part of the three confederates, begun without provocation, and wholly indefensible. Denmark invaded Holstein-Gottorp, (April, 1700,) but was soon forced by Charles to conclude a peace, in which she promised to undertake no further hostilities against Sweden, (Aug. 18.) Hastening to Ingria, then being ravaged by a Russian army, the Swedish monarch gained, with 8000 men, a decisive victory at Narva, over an opposing mass of 80,000 undisciplined and ill-officered soldiers, (Nov. 30.) Supposing that he had prostrated the Russian power by this one blow, Charles left two weak corps in Ingria to resist the attacks of Peter, and hastened, burning with the desire of vengeance, to subdue Augustus II., his Polish adversary. Augustus was defeated at Riga, (July, 1701,) and Charles penetrated through Poland to Warsaw, (May, 1702.) The resolution of the Swedish conqueror, now adopted, to dethrone Augustus and give the Poles another king, involved him in a bloody contest with the greater part of the nation,

which, though finally successful, detained him five years from attempting to execute his design against the Czar, and thus gave Russia opportunity to recover from the disastrous defeat at Narva. During this time, while Charles was in Poland and Saxony, the Czar established his dominion on the Baltic. Ingria and Karelia had been recovered, and the city of St. Petersburg founded in the conquered country, (May, 1703.) Narva was taken, and Livonia was partly occupied, (1704.)

Thinking to dethrone the Czar as he had Augustus, Charles XII. resolved to attack him in his own dominions. At the head of 45,000 men he penetrated (1708) through Lithuania into Russia, and having gained a battle, advanced on the road to Moscow: but at Smolensk he turned south, and crossing the Dnieper, (Aug. 11,) advanced towards the Ukraine, expecting reinforcements from the Cossacks. The valiant Lowenhaupt, whom Charles had left behind to advance more leisurely, hastening from Livonia to his assistance, was defeated, and his army cut to pieces, (Oct 8.) Notwithstanding the promises of Hetman Mazeppa, the Cossacks rendered but little aid. The winter was passed in the Ukraine. In the spring, Charles advanced towards Moscow, and invested Pultava (May, 1709) with 30,000 men. When Peter marched to its relief, the Swedish hero gave battle, and suffered a complete defeat, (June 27.) His army was totally destroyed, and he himself escaped with difficulty, attended by a small retinue, into Turkey. Thus was the mighty power of Charles XII. annihilated. All the political relations that he had formed were at once destroyed; Denmark, Poland and Saxony deemed themselves no longer bound to observe the conditions of peace which had been extorted by the Swede, when a conqueror.

A fugitive in Turkey, Charles resigned not his hopes of dethroning the Czar. At his solicitation the Porte declared war against Russia, (1710.) Peter, with an army of thirty thousand men, broke into Moldavia and Wallachia, where he was soon surrounded by a Turkish host of two hundred thousand. The advice of a woman, Katharine, the wife of Peter, saved the Russians from annihilation. An embassy was sent to the Grand Vizier, with suitable presents, requesting peace; which was concluded at Falxin, (July, 1711.) Peter agreed to restore Azov and its territory, and to dismantle Taganroc and other fortresses on the Black Sea.

Twice more did Charles persuade the Porte to declare war, but speedy reconciliation followed. He returned, at length, disappointed, but not despairing, to Sweden, (1714,) and was killed a few years later, (1718,) in the midst of plans for conquest, in which, through the management of his minister, Gortz, Russia herself had been induced to become his ally.

The new Swedish government having offended the Czar by the execution of Gortz, negotiations respecting a settlement of boundaries, which had been begun, were suspended. Peter, who had already, while Charles was in Turkey, driven the Swedes from Russian-Poland, now possessing a fleet on the Baltic, ravaged the coast of Sweden itself, and dictated the terms of reconciliation, (August, 1721.) To

Russia was ceded for ever the provinces of Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria and Karelia, a part of Vyburg, and all the islands from the boundary of Courland to Vyburg, all which had been conquered by the Czar. In return, he restored Finland to Sweden, and gave her also \$2,000,000. Peter now received the titles "Great," "Father of his Country," and "Emperor of all the Russias," conferred on him by the imperial senate and holy synod of his empire. The powers of Europe acknowledged the imperial dignity; for Russia had now become indisputably the leading power of the north.

The emperor turned his arms next against Persia and took the commercial city, Derbent, the celebrated Gate of Rock, on the Caspian Sea, (1722.) The occasion was an injury done by the Lesghis, a predatory tribe under the dominion of Persia. Soon after, he obtained of the Shah, Thamasp, in consideration of aid lent against the Afghans, the Caspian provinces Daghestan, Schirwan, Ghilan, Mazanderan and Asterabad, and the cities Baku and Derbent. This was the beginning of Russian rule in the East. In February, 1725, Peter died.

If ever monarch deserved to be called "Great," Peter of Russia did. His projects for reforming and civilizing his empire were wisely and consistently carried out during his entire reign. At the age of twenty-five he descended from his throne, (1697,) and traveled as a private man in Europe, seeking to become acquainted with the wants of Russia, and the true means for their relief. Returning, his first work was the expulsion, for revolt, of the Strelzi, a band of soldiers not unlike the Janizaries of Turkey, and the formation of a nucleus of an army organized and disciplined after the European manner. The troops which defeated Charles XII. at Pultava exhibited a discipline not inferior to that of the Swedes. Commerce, manufactures, and agriculture were encouraged by his munificence. The sciences and arts had in him a firm protector, and the cause of education engaged his attention. The administration of justice, and the code of laws, were improved; and the police of the large cities were organized on a plan correspondent to that followed in France. Under his guiding hand manners and institutions, costumes, and even amusements were humanized and improved. Settlements were formed in Siberia, and even Kamtschatka was not overlooked in the universal scheme of elevation. In these reforms Peter persevered till his death; and if, in carrying them out, he was sometimes arbitrary, we can forgive the manner for the sake of the intent.

Catharine I., widow of Peter, ascended the throne at his death, and governed till 1727, under the guidance of her minister, Mencikow. Peter II., son of Alexis, and grandson of Peter the Great, reigned, after her, till 1730, under the control of the Dolgomkies, by whom Mencikow had been banished to Siberia. *Anna*, daughter of Ivan, Peter the Great's brother, the widowed Duchess of Courland, was proclaimed empress on the decease of her cousin. An attempt of the native nobles to restrict her power, ended in their ruin, not without dissimulation on the part of the Czarina. A cabinet composed chiefly of foreigners was now formed, for the first time, in Russia. Ernest of Biron, Duke of Courland, was her favorite: but Munnich, a Saxon soldier, formed

in the armies under Eugene and Marlborough, her greatest general. Her reign was not undistinguished by foreign wars.

On the extinction of the ducal house of Courland, the Czarina obtained that duchy, which had hitherto been a fief of Poland, for Biron, (1737,) and from this time all appointments to the duchy were made by Russia. Poland itself had already, on the death of Augustus II. (1733,) received a new king, Augustus III., at the dictation of Muscovite armies. In that kingdom, now become fearfully corrupt through the vices of its nobility, Russian influence was henceforth predominant.*

The long meditated revenge against Turkey for its successful resistance to Peter the Great, was carried by Anna into execution. Munnich ravaged the steppes on the Black Sea, and all the country from the Don to the Lower Danube, (1736 to 1739.) Azov was taken, and the Crimea devastated. Austria joined with Russia, hoping to obtain a share of the spoils; but instead of victory, she met with defeat, and finally concluded at Belgrade an ignominious peace, (1739.) Russia, soon after, put a period to the war, by agreement with the Porte, according to which Azov, razed, however, was to be retained by her, and her boundaries in the Ukraine enlarged, but other conquests to be restored to Turkey. The superiority of Russia over her Moslem rival was deemed for ever decided.

Anna (1740) appointed *Ivan*, son of her niece, yet an infant, to succeed her, under the regency of Biron. The regent was, in a few days, overthrown by Munnich, and Anna II., Ivan's mother, appointed to his place. *Elizabeth*, daughter of Peter the Great, soon found means to displace both Anna and her son, (1741.) Munnich was banished to Siberia; Anna died heart-broken; Ivan languished for twenty years, and was finally put to death in a prison.

The reign of Elizabeth (1752) is rendered notable chiefly by the part she took against Frederick the Great, of Prussia, during the memorable European Seven Years War, (1756—1763.) Previously,

* The inhabitants of Poland are Slavonians. The name Poland first came into European use in the 9th century, when *Piast* was elevated to the head of the dukedom. His dynasty ruled till the death of Casimir the Great, (1370,) when his daughter's husband, *Louis of Hungary*, the male line being extinct, was chosen king by the Polish magnates, vayvodes and bishops. Louis's daughter, *Hedewig*, being married to *Jagello*, grand-duke of Lithuania, he succeeded on the death of his father-in-law, (1385,) to the united kingdom of Poland, under the name of *Vladislaw II.* During the reign of this dynasty, (till 1572,) Poland became the most powerful kingdom in Europe, extending from the Oder to the Dnieper, and from the Baltic to the Black Sea. It contained 383,400 square miles. During this time, however, the prime cause of its dissolution was at work,—encroachments by the nobles on the prerogatives of the throne. As to people, Poland may be said to have had none, for the nobles had reduced them to serfdom. The evil became fearfully apparent on the extinction of the house of Jagello, when the kingdom became *elective*. Circumstanced as she was, Poland could have remained independent only under the rule of despotism; but no despot appeared. "From the time that the crown was formally made elective," says Heeren, speaking of Poland, "a volcano arose in the midst of Europe, whose eruptions, at almost every change of government, often threatened the countries that were remote as well as near. Of the eleven kings of Poland, from Henry of Valois, 1572, to Stanislaus, 1764, hardly three were elected with union; foreign influence, and the wild spirit of faction, continued from the first to the last." (*Hist. of the Pol. System of Europe*, trans. by Bancroft, vol. i. p. 168.) What became of this distracted, and after a time corrupt kingdom, will appear in the sequel of Russia's history.

she had engaged in a war with Sweden, kindled by the intrigues of France, in that country, (1741.) The contest was a losing one for Sweden. At the peace (1743) the Kymen was admitted as the boundary of Russia. In Austria, the Muscovite troops behaved with such firmness as to astonish Europe. Successful repeatedly against the French and Austrians, Frederick failed in almost every instance in his conflicts with the armies of Russia. The death of Elizabeth relieved the Prussian monarch from the danger which threatened his speedy destruction; the empress' successor, *Charles Peter Ulrich*, her sister's son, a warm admirer of Frederick, concluded with him not only a peace, but an alliance, (1762.) Soon after, on the violent death of Peter III., his wife and successor, *Katharine*, princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, to whom he owed his dethronement, annulled the alliance with the Prussian king, but preserved a faithful neutrality. Poland and the Porte remained, meanwhile, undisturbed.

Katharine appears as a worthy rival of Peter I.; for she was great, as far as one can be so, without morality. All men detest the woman who conspired against and murdered her husband, and afterwards practised the grossest immoralities; but they admire the wisdom, energy and success with which she managed, for thirty-four years, the civil and military affairs of the Russian empire. Like Peter, she engaged during her lifetime in projects for improving the condition of her kingdom. The arts and sciences were sedulously encouraged, foreigners invited to become residents, treaties of commerce concluded, cities built, roads and canals constructed, the empire divided into governments, and tribunals for the administration of justice erected, the military organization rendered more complete, and the bounds of the empire extended.

The death of Augustus III., of Poland, (1763,) gave Katharine opportunity to interfere in the affairs of that anarchical kingdom. Stanislaus Poniatowsky was elected monarch under the patronage of Russian arms. The unhappy kingdom was disturbed by strife between the Dissidents and the Catholics. A confederation of the former, supported by Russia and Prussia, was formed, which demanded political equality for Dissidents, (1767.) The kingdom was involved in civil commotions which it seemed next to impossible to compose. Katharine and Frederick, in conjunction with Austria, settled the question, to the astonishment and indignation of the civilized world, by the dismemberment of the kingdom. A third part of Poland was calmly divided between the three powers, (1772;) Russia obtaining the country between the Dwina, Dnieper, and Drutsch. The other powers of Europe were not in a condition to interfere. The Polish Diet, overawed by the presence of foreign armies, consented to the dismemberment. Even that part of the kingdom which the allied royal robbers spared, remained still under the controlling influence of the Czarina, who only waited an occasion to annex it to her increasing empire.

While Katharine was executing her designs against Poland, Turkey, ever jealous of Russian influence in that quarter, espousing the cause of the latter, declared war against Russia, (1768.) A six years'

bloody contest now ensued. The war was waged by land and by sea. A squadron sailed from the Baltic around Europe, and appeared in the Grecian Archipelago. The Turkish fleet was annihilated, and Greece, Syria and Egypt excited to rebellion. The Crimea was invaded and captured, Moldavia and Wallachia were ravaged, and the Danube crossed by Romanzoff. The Porte, wearied with strife, concluded the peace of Kainardgi, (1774,) by which it acknowledged the freedom of the Crimea and Cuban, (Little Tartary,) and granted to the Russians free navigation in the Black and all Turkish seas, and an interest in the affairs of Constantinople. Moldavia and Wallachia were restored to Turkey.

From this time the Czarina thought seriously of reviving the old Greek empire on the ruins of the Ottoman. The Crimea and Cuban had, by the last treaty with Turkey, become in fact dependencies of Russia. A disturbance amongst the Tartars of these countries, respecting the Khan of Crimea, led to their formal incorporation into the empire, (1783.) Turkey, chagrined, however, had to acquiesce. A navy was immediately established on the Black Sea. Potemkin, Katharine's general, raised to the dignity of field-marshal, was appointed governor of the Taurida, with a numerous army under his command. The empress visited in person, as in triumph, the new conquest, (1787;) and, while on the journey, concluded an alliance with Joseph II., of Austria. The Sultan, alarmed at the movement of Katharine, to whom the Caucasian countries had also submitted, declared war against the Muscovites, August 16, 1787.*

A destructive war of four years' duration followed; but it ended not as the Czarina had hoped. Turkey, though her armies were defeated, her navies destroyed, and her fortified towns taken, was not yet destined to succumb. Potemkin defended the Crimea; while Romanzoff and Suwarrow stormed town after town in Moldavia. The Austrians also made an irruption into Turkey, conquering Belgrade. Gustavus III., of Sweden, in order to effect a division, declared war against Russia, (1788;) but, after an indecisive and chiefly naval contest, peace was declared, (August, 1790,) leaving the parties in the same state as before the war. Austria, troubled by internal dissensions after the death of Joseph, came to terms with Turkey, on the mediation of England and Prussia, (1791,) agreeing to return to the *status ante bellum*. Katharine, however, disdained and refused all mediation, declaring she would conclude her peace alone. And she did. An arrangement was made with Turkey at Jassy, (1792,) by which Russia obtained Oczakoff and the territory between the Dnieper and the Dniester, all her other conquests being restored to the Porte. Thus was the dominion of the Czarina on the Black Sea rendered complete.

Katharine had time now to turn her attention to Poland, which, after refusing to join in the Turkish war, had with great unanimity

* The Porte was alarmed on hearing of the journey of the Czarina, and of the threatening inscription which she inscribed on the gate of the newly-founded city, Kherson: "Here is the way to Constantinople."

thrown off Russian guardianship, and adopted a new constitution fitted for a sovereign state, (1791.) The movement, however, had its opponents. By these a confederacy was formed at Targouicz, calling itself the nation, the leadership of which was assumed by Katharine. Russian armies hastened into Poland, and overthrew the supporters of the new constitution. They looked in vain to Prussia for its promised assistance. The Prussian troops marched into the kingdom, indeed; not, however, to assist the cause of the oppressed, but to a new dismemberment. The unhappy Poland was again divided; more than one half of its remaining territory being partitioned between Russia and Prussia, (1793.) The opponents of the new constitution saw and deplored too late their error and their shame. Russia's share of the plunder was a territory of more than 20,000 square miles, with a population of 3,000,000. What remained of the dismembered kingdom, was subjected to the control of its Muscovite enemy.

The Polish nation, however, could not submit to Russian oppression without further resistance. An insurrection, headed by Kosciusko, broke out at Cracow, (1794,) and soon spread itself over the kingdom. The Russians were expelled from Warsaw, and a government erected. But, though they fought with desperation, and in detached efforts with success, the Poles could not resist the combined hosts of their despoilers. Kosciusko was defeated, and taken prisoner by the Russian Fersen; and Warsaw was taken by assault, (Nov., 1794,) by the unfeeling Suwarrow. Poland was now utterly dismembered, Austria also coming in and claiming a share of the spoil, (Oct., 1795.) Russia obtained an additional 3,000,000 square miles of territory, with a population of 1,200,000. Courland, the former fief of Poland, was also annexed to the Russian empire. In the following year, (Nov. 1796,) the Czarina died, and was succeeded by her son, Paul I.

Previous to Catharine's death, the European revolution consequent upon the disturbances in France, had broken out; but she had done nothing more than threaten. Belgium and Italy fell, at the peace of Campo Formio, (Oct. 1797,) to France. But the naval war was still carried on by England, which succeeded, after Bonaparte's descent on Egypt, in forming a coalition with Russia, (Dec. 1798,) to which Austria soon acceded. The Austrian Archduke, Charles, and the Russian general, the warrior Suwarrow, delivered Italy, Switzerland, and Germany from the enemy, in one campaign, (1799.) Soon, however, a misunderstanding having arisen, Russia withdrew from the coalition. Napoleon, now First Consul, reconquered, in one campaign, what had been gained by the Archduke and Suwarrow, 1800.

A new maritime war had been kindled in the north by the policy of Paul I., who had been won over by the First Consul, when the Czar was assassinated, (March, 1801.) His successor, *Alexander I.*, adopting a different policy, acceded to the wishes of England. The peace of Amiens quickly followed, (1802;) soon, however, to be broken by the ambition of the restless Emperor of the French, (since 1804.)

A new coalition was formed by England, Sweden, Russia and Aus-

tria, (1805.) Austria succumbed to the arms of Napoleon before Russia could give assistance, and was compelled to conclude a disgraceful peace. Prussia, arming too late, was conquered, (1806,) and Poland, now reached by the victor, was incited to insurrection, (1807.) The Czar, wearied of the contest, concluded a peace at Tilsit, (July,) by which, among the concessions, he acknowledged the newly-constituted duchy of Warsaw.

Russia now withdrew from the sphere of the European contest, but the peace which it had concluded led to a rupture with Sweden, (1808.) In the war which ensued, Sweden was threatened with destruction by the victorious Russians. Gustavus IV. was deposed by his own subjects, and his successor, Charles XIII., concluded a peace (Sept 1809,) by which Sweden ceded to Russia all Finland to the river Torneo, and the isle of Aland—one-third of its territory and population.

The continental system of Napoleon, at first agreed to, afterwards gave offence to the Czar, and he tacitly renounced it, (Dec. 1810.) A coldness arose, on this and other accounts, between the Emperor of the East and the Emperor of the West, which led, at length, to hostilities, (1812.) Well was it for Russia that she had successfully terminated a war of acquisition in Turkey, ere the storm burst upon her territories. She had obtained, as her boundary, the Pruth to its confluence with the Danube, and the latter river thence to its mouth, (May, 1812.)

Napoleon could brook no other ruler in Europe but himself; therefore, having conquered the West, was now about to dethrone the Czar. Perhaps he dreamed, too, of subjugating Asia, and establishing a world-dominion. Russia, though in alliance with Sweden, England, and Spain, withstood the shock alone. Such an army as Bonaparte raised, had not been seen in Europe since the days of Attila, or the Tartar Oktai, or the remoter times of Xerxes. More than 500,000 soldiers, the flower of the western nations, advanced to the work of destruction. The invader marched on in three columns to Smolensk, (Aug. 18,) thence (the Russians meanwhile retreating under Koutousoff, but not in flight,) to Moscow, Sept. 15. The city was burnt to the ground by the Russians themselves, and Napoleon was left without accommodations for his army during the coming winter. "The campaign may now end," proposed he; "The campaign is now beginning," sternly replied Koutousoff. There was no alternative but retreat. Moscow was deserted, (Oct. 19,) and the flight, for such it soon became, commenced. Before the close of the year, not a living enemy remained in Russia. The grand invading army was annihilated—240,000 bodies being buried beneath the snows of Russia. All Europe was in mourning for the dead, but it rejoiced in its new-gained freedom.

Alexander pursued the flying foe, and advanced into Prussia, exhorting the nations to revolt, (1813.) Prussia and Austria soon joined the conqueror, as also Sweden and Great Britain. The subsequent victories by which Napoleon was overthrown, were gained, not by Russians alone, but by the allied armies. Being such, they

require here no special enumeration. At the conclusion of the contest, Russia stood forth the most powerful state of continental Europe. Poland, now restored as a kingdom, with its own representative government, was united for ever with the empire of the Czar, who, meanwhile, had been extending his dominions in Persia. At a later period, after the suppression of the insurrection of 1830-31, the constitution of 1815 was taken from Poland, and it became what it now is—merely a Russian province, with some peculiarities of administration.

To the hour of his death, (Dec.*1825,) Alexander adhered firmly to the principles of the "Holy Alliance," which had been held, after the dethronement of Bonaparte, for the purpose of settling the relations of the different European powers. He was occupied chiefly with the internal improvement of his empire. His successor, *Nicholas*, who occupied the throne, to the exclusion of his brother Constantine, by his own consent, however—adhering, in general, to the policy of his father Alexander, thought and acted differently from him with regard to Turkey. That power having become hostile in its conduct, Nicholas demanded the redress of grievances, (1826.) Still, neither party was satisfied. War being declared, (April, 1828,) the Russians marched into the Ottoman territory. General Diebitsch took Adrianople; and Constantinople, in terror, anticipated his approach, (1829,) and Paskiewitsch ravaged Turkey in Asia. A peace was now concluded, (Sept. 14,) by the active interference of European powers, by which Russia, extremely moderate in its demands, obtained only the mouth of the Danube.

Meantime the emperor carried on his conquests unchecked in Persia, in which he obtained much booty and much territory. He looks now, with the eye of acquisition, to those provinces, which conquered, the way to India is open; nor, in this policy, will he tolerate European interference. England may well fear ulterior consequences. The war in the Caucasus, however, still continues, as it has for years, to employ the Russian armies. The hardy mountaineers of this range, form the only check to the imperial rule on the southern frontier.* The northwest coast of America was appropriated to

* The range of the Caucasus has a mean breadth of 200 miles, a length of 800 miles, covering a surface of 5,000 leagues; and is, from its extreme ruggedness, almost impregnable; for neither cavalry nor artillery can pass its heights. It is inhabited by 2,000,000 people. Respecting these people, and the policy pursued towards them by Russia, and in general towards the nations of the South subdued by Russia, *G. L. Ditson*, an American, who has lately made a tour of observation in the countries which they inhabit, makes the following note-worthy remarks:

"The view I have taken of Russia's advance southward, will not, at first, either in England or America, be acceptable. By the natives of the former, never, except to their secret judgment; for they daily proclaim the infamy of the Czar as he leads his armies towards India from the north, while the vocabulary of laudatory words is exhausted on Britain's conquering hosts advancing on the same country from the south. The Americans require only to understand the condition of the people subdued, and being subdued—the policy of the victors, and the result of their conquest—to recognize a picture of our wars with the Indians, wresting from them their lands, driving them from the more sacred graves of their fathers—to assent to what all my observations bear me out in asserting, that Russia is doing much to civilize and Christianize the eastern world. This is not being effected by priests, who are said to be excessively dissolute, but in her

Russia by a ukase of 1821, by which foreign navigation in the vicinity of its coasts is prohibited.

The interference of Russia in favor of Austria, prompted also by fear for herself, in the late Hungarian revolutionary movements, and the fear entertained by the civilized world for the integrity of Turkey, when the Czar had been victorious, are familiar to all readers, and need not therefore be here recounted. But who supposes, because she delays the execution, that Russia has resigned her ancient determination? The Ottoman empire will yet be resolved into the Muscovite, unless the Russian itself be destroyed by a combination of hostile influences such as the world has never seen. Destiny seems to have fixed the issue, and both nations await the inevitable event. An ancient prophecy, believed by Russians and Turks, asserts that the Russians shall, in the last days, become masters of Constantinople. It may be that many years will not elapse before the accomplishment of the prediction—"of which," says Gibbon, "the style is unambiguous and the date unquestionable." At this day, the Constantinopolitans point out the gate by which the troops of Muscovy are to enter; while the Russians would march with an enthusiasm, like that of the crusaders, to take possession of the claimed inheritance of Ivan.

The acquisitions of the "Northern Colossus," within the last eighty years, are equal to all the territory it held previously in Europe. Since the accession of Peter the Great, its population has increased from fifteen to sixty-five millions. Its acquisitions from Sweden are greater than that kingdom as now existing; from Poland, almost equal in extent to the Austrian empire; from Turkey in Europe, greater than Prussia, not counting the provinces of the Rhine; from Turkey, in Asia, equal to the smaller German states; from Persia, equal to England; in Tartary, equal to Turkey in Europe, Greece, Italy and Spain. The frontiers of the empire have been advanced,

immediate connection with those semi-civilized Orientals, where she is striving, by vast commercial relationships, to make up the deficiency caused by her limited maritime resources: elegant forms of refined society, and its genial influences, accompany her. For it is not too much to say, that the most learned, accomplished, scientific men, are around her every step; that schools, those sure fountains, or divine rivulets of liberty, virtue and happiness, spring up along the way of her majestic march; and that, wherever her banner floats, there is securely planted the cross of the Redeemer.

"Leaving aside invidious comparisons between Greek, Roman, Mahometan, and Protestant religions—each in their results manifesting some virtue superior to the other—let us think for a moment what is to be the ultimate effect of schools, steam, commercial intercourse, attention to agriculture, already felt since Russia's eagle hovered over the Tartar plains and the Caucasian hills. Let us then ask what was, and what has been for ages, the condition of the Tauridian inhabitants, and those of that vast chain of mountains stretching from the Euxine to the Caspian. Living under the influences of all that is enervating and debasing in the worst forms of Mahometan, Hindoo, and Persian creeds, what intellectual light gleamed over that deep, dead, heavy, murky sea of profound ignorance in which they were sunk? What commercial enterprise, what new invention, what new discovery, what in art or science, has spread its wings in those regions, and soaring, carried its blessings to mankind? The Tartar lives in his mud and felt hut, and much like our Indians, roams over the vast prairies or steppes. The Caucasian lives in his mountain *chaumine*, as far from the influence of civilization as the benefits of education are from his dreams." (*Circassia*; or, *A Tour to the Caucasus*. New-York, 1850. (Introd. pp. x., xi.)

towards Berlin, 700 miles; 500 towards Constantinople; 630 towards Stockholm; and 1200 towards Teheran. No wonder that Europe, and especially England, dreads the extension of her giant power. Sweep away Persia, and the main barrier that protects India is removed. It is not improbable that Britain will yet have to contest with Russia the possession of the East; and it is by no means certain that the colossal strength of Russia will not obtain a triumph. In such an event, all Asia would infallibly submit to her sway.

The idea of a "Panslavic Empire," discussed and advocated, of late years, among the Slavonians of Eastern Europe, has been embraced with enthusiasm by Nicholas. He would have all the Slavonic people gather around Russia as their head, and form an empire that shall embrace the whole of Eastern Europe. Other schemes of securing the rule of the Slavonic race, have been advocated, which contemplate the establishment of two or more Slavonic nationalities. Nicholas' scheme is the simplest and the most likely to be effected; but, if executed, it must almost of necessity result in the loss of freedom among all the Slavonian nations. The late revolution in Hungary put a stop, for a time, to all speculation on the subject. How the contest terminated is too well known; but, while it was still waging, a writer on the Slavonic movement proclaimed, perhaps with prophetic truth, "Should the Russians win the day, then there will be a Panslavic empire in right earnest; the Czar, overruling decrepit Austria like a master, will place his foot upon Constantinople, and look scowlingly towards the European West; and this state of things will continue till the coming blow shall be struck that shall shiver Russia itself in pieces, and proclaim a new era for the enfranchised world."^{*}

(To be continued.)

* The Slavonians of Europe number 78,691,000, who are, with the exception of 190,000 Poles, of Cracow, and Wends, of Saxony, distributed, in Russia (53,502,000), Austria (16,791,000), Prussia (2,108,000), and Turkey (6,100,000.) Of late years, the Slavonians have been thinking and writing of their political regeneration. Two theories on the mode of effecting this regeneration have been proposed; the one, what is called Panslavism; the other, a separation into distinct nationalities.

The idea of Panslavism was, in its origin, purely literary. Its father is John Kellar, a Slovak scholar of Hungary, who proposed (first in 1828) that the Slavonic literati of every nation should establish a literary reciprocity by making themselves acquainted with the dialect of their common tongue, whence in time a common literary language and literature might be formed; a result which could easily be reached, since these dialects, as he proved, differ from each other no more than did the dialects of the ancient Greek.

No sooner was the idea promulgated than it gained admirers and supporters in every part of the Slavonic world. By none was it received more favorably than by the Czar, who, however, substituted for literary Panslavism, political Panslavism under the guidance of Russia. The idea met with universal favor in Russia itself, and not a few of the Slavonians of Austria embraced it, though not, perhaps, in the sense of Nicholas.

The theory of a separation of the Slavic peoples into several distinct nationalities owes its origin to Dr. Gai, an Illyrian, who proposed (first in 1835) the consolidation of the several Græco-Slavonic nations of the extreme south, Austrian and Turkish, into one state, to be called *Great Illyria*. A strong feeling soon arose among all these nations in favor of the proposition, and men began to talk in earnest and with hope about the future nationality. A similar notion found earnest advocates among the Tchekkish-Slavonians, who advocated the establishment of a similar state among the Western Slavonians. Publications on the subject were distributed far and wide; in which was advocated the formation of four separate nationalities: 1st, the Illyrico-Slavonian; 2d, the Tchekkish-Slavonian; 3d, the Polish-Slavonian, embracing Poland as it was before the partitions; 4th, the Russo-Slavonian, comprehending the other peoples of the Slavonic race.

Intermediate between these two schemes is a third, which proposed to arrange the Sla-

ART. II.—THE "OLD DOMINION."*

HISTORICAL, ETC., ESSAYS ON VIRGINIA.—COLONIAL ERA.

THE history of that portion of the Union of which it is my purpose to speak, is, as well as that of *all* other parts of America, shrouded in very great doubt, prior to the first voyage of Columbus. While some of the most learned and capable historians uphold the claims of the Northmen or Icelanders, to its discovery, with a great amount of zeal and ability, there are also others equally learned, who sustain the attempts made by the Welsh, to prove themselves its first discoverers and settlers. There are still others who defend the claims of the inhabitants of northern Asia. The writer of this article will not essay to turn *his* feeble pen to the fruitless and wearisome task of inquiring as to which of these classes of writers are right, and which wrong, in their views upon this point, because *none* of their opinions could, even if satisfactorily established, throw any very great light upon the early history of Virginia.

It is needless for *me* to touch, at any great length, upon the discoveries of Columbus, for they have been celebrated by the mighty pen of an Irving, and by many other writers, who, though not so celebrated as he, yet have been, by no means, of small talents.

vonians into two great empires: 1st. A reformed Russian, including all the territories now possessed by the Czar, except Poland, in place of which it was to take the Slavonic countries of Turkey; 2d. A reformed Austrian, including the present population of Austria, not the Italians, however, and the Poles. The discussion of all these schemes was brought to an abrupt close by the breaking out of the insurrection in Hungary. The result of that contest shows, that neither the Austrian Emperor nor the Czar will suffer the scheme of several distinct nationalities to be carried into execution. There remains, therefore, only that of Panславism, to the carrying out of which idea, in a political no less than in a literary point of view, the Czar will, no doubt, apply, for the future, his best energies.

The literature of the Slavonians has been very little known to the western world; but it now begins to be understood that it is as old, but little less extensive, and as peculiar as the literature of the Germans. Those who should know, assert, that no language ever spoken is more highly organized than the Slavonic, not excepting even the ancient Greek. It possesses "numerous declensions, an ablative case, a dual number, a patronymic termination, diminutive and augmentative nouns, frequentative and inceptive verbs, various preterit and future tenses, inflexions of verbs rendering pronouns unnecessary, unlimited powers of compounding words, and a host of serviceable particles; besides all which, it includes every articulate human sound known, except the English *th*." The literature is represented as rich, and peculiarly original; nay, some of its admirers assert that it is even superior to the Teutonic or German. This whole subject respecting the Slavonic race and its recent political strivings, is well treated in the *North British Review*, for August, 1849, in an interesting article, entitled, "The Slavonians and Eastern Europe."

* 1. An Introduction to the History of the Colony and Ancient Dominion of Virginia, by Charles Campbell. Richmond, 1847.

2. A History of Virginia, by Robert R. Harrison. Philadelphia, 1846. 2 vols. 8vo.

3. Historical Collections of Virginia, by Henry Hone. Charleston, S. C. 1845. 8vo.

4. The Pictorial History of the United States of America, by John Frost, LL.D. Philadelphia, 1844. 2 vols.

5. History of the United States, by George Bancroft. Boston, 1846. 3 vols. 8vo.

6. The History of Virginia, from the earliest times to the present day, by John Burke. Petersburg, Va. 1804. 3 vols. 8vo.

7. A continuation of the same, by Skelton Jones and Louis Hue irardin. Petersburg, Va. 1816. 1 vol. 8vo.

A few lines on the voyages of Columbus will be necessary, however, in order to reach the point at which I shall first aim, namely, at the first settlement of Virginia by white men. It is known to all, even to the school-boy of not a dozen summers, that Columbus first discovered Guanahani, or Cat Island, one of the West Indies, in the month of October, 1492. But he did not extend his voyage at this time to the continent of America, seeming to be satisfied, for the present at least, to have even reached one of the adjacent islands. He could not, however, have been then aware that the main continent lay so adjacent to the newly-found isle, but yet he doubtless then had suspicions aroused, the which were finally verified by subsequent visits. Yet, in his many and varied wanderings, he never once, strange to say, visited the coast of Virginia, and entered into trade or treaty with her tawny inhabitants. In the year 1496, Henry VII., then king of England, granted authority to John Cabot, a native of the water-abounding city of Venice, but who had, for a great number of years, been a citizen of Great Britain, to navigate all seas, with his three sons, and to take possession of all unoccupied countries in the name of the king of England. He set sail in the early part of 1497, and soon afterwards came upon a cold and barren region, which he then knew not, but which future events have clearly proven to be either the coasts of Labrador, and the other parts of northern British America, or those of Greenland. At any rate, he returned to Europe, dissatisfied with what he imagined to be his great want of success, and ignorant of the fact that *he* was the man who had, or rather, who should, lay open to the admiring and wondering eyes of a whole world, a new world, as it were; for, till then, but little if any idea did they have of its existence.

For ourselves, we shall begin with the period when sober facts first take the place of conjecture. In 1584, the first expedition, set on foot by Raleigh for the purpose of availing himself of the liberal grant made by Queen Elizabeth, set sail from England, in the month of April, under the command of captains Amidas and Barlow. It comprised but two small vessels, and it was not until the following July that they reached the coasts of Florida, without making any stay, perhaps on account of the *great* heat of the weather. They soon reached the coast of North-Carolina, and landed on the island of Wococoon, as it was called in the Indian tongue, which was in the vicinity of that terror to even modern sailors, Cape Hatteras. Here they remained a very short space of time, and sailed a short distance up Albemarle Sound, until they reached the Island of Roanoke, where they met with very great hospitalities, not only at the hands of the common and lower orders of the Indians who inhabited that newly-discovered spot, but also from the kind and hospitable spouse of his tawny highness, and even the Indian king himself. The party now returned to England, bearing with them various articles which were used by the Indians for different purposes, and also several of the natives themselves, who created quite an ex-

itement in the fashionable circles of that kingdom. The captains and other chief men among the daring adventurers, (for such they were then considered,) waited upon Queen Elizabeth, and gave her glowing and picturesque accounts of the country, the rich soil, glorious climate, varied scenery of mountain, plain, river, and sea, noble streams, forests and mountains, the boldness and careful nature, but yet the kind feelings, confidence, simplicity, and want of suspicion of its natives, &c. &c.

The Queen became delighted and even charmed with this newly-found land of plenty, and bestowed upon it a name, at once expressive of both its virgin purity, and of the state of virginity and single blessedness in which she then was. This title was, for many years, applied to a large portion of the continent of North America, but its extent has been diminishing for a great period, until it now embraces but the state known by that name, and which is only a mere tithe of the former Virginia, which embraced within itself a space greater in size than many a rich kingdom of the old world.

After a few months' stay in England, the expedition once more returned to the spot so lately laid open to their wondering eyes. Their numbers were greatly increased, for their fleet was now composed, according to the best authorities, of no less than *seven* vessels, of all sizes, instead of the two tiny barks in which they had formerly embarked. The command was given to Sir Richard Grenville, who was a near relative of Sir Walter Raleigh, the projector of the expedition. They carried with them all the necessary articles for the foundation of a colony, the great wish of Sir Walter, which he, alas! was destined never to accomplish.

They sailed by the way of the West-Indies, and in the course of their outward voyage, captured several richly-laden Spanish prizes, and in a few months arrived at Roanoke Island, at the opening of Albemarle Sound, the same which they had visited the year previous. Here it was that they determined to establish the colony, and upwards of one hundred men were left for that purpose, with all the necessary implements of husbandry, &c. Before we leave this colony, it will not, we think, be improper to give one of the chief reasons for the extreme hostility manifested towards the settlers of Virginia by the aborigines at an early period. During the stay of Grenville, an Indian, not having the fear of God or the English before his eyes, stole from one of the adventurers a *silver cup*, and because he did not instantly give it up, when commanded to do so, the village in which the theft was committed was, by order of Grenville, burnt to the ground, and the crop of corn in the vicinity destroyed. This truly great and merciless punishment for a simple petty act of theft by an untutored and heathen savage, and that punishment inflicted by a *pretended* civilized and merciful Christian, left revenge and hatred imprinted deeply within the hearts of the Indians, as subsequent events fully proved. The colony was left under the government of Ralph Lane, a man of great skill and experience in both military and nautical affairs, but of little skill in husbandry. The settlers, not in the habit of raising their food by the labor of their own hands, relied

mainly for support upon the supplies left by their companions, and these being soon exhausted by their prodigality, they were forced to depend upon the natives, who, not looking upon them with an eye at all friendly, were by no means disposed to assist them. The English, being *obliged* to obtain food in some way, or starve, set to work to *force* the Indians to grant them the necessary provisions. The latter returned force by force, and for some time the two races were engaged in a bloody war. The English, though finally victors in the strife, were worse off as regarded food at its close, than they had been at the beginning; for the conquered Indians, knowing as they did the object of their antagonists, took good care to destroy all their supplies except what they absolutely needed, and thus, in a certain mode, "carried the war into Africa." The colonists were nearly reduced to the greatest depths of famine, and many of their number were upon the point of death, when the arrival upon their coast of Sir Francis Drake, with a plentiful stock of provisions, added new life to their movements. At the request and entreaties of Lane and the remainder of the colonists, Sir Francis received them on board his fleet, and they returned once more to England, having been resident in the colony for about twelve months, and having become thoroughly disgusted with it during that period. Thus perished ignobly, the first settlement made by Englishmen in North-America, and this, too, nearly 100 years after its first discovery. It was in the brief existence of this short-lived station, that the English first learned the use of the "weed," which has become so well known, and so extensively used throughout the whole world, civilized as well as savage, and which may be truly styled *the* staple of Virginia. They carried this article over with them to the mother country, and her inhabitants also were shortly induced to indulge in its use, and very soon cargoes of it were shipped to supply the demand, which was then increasing, and has continued to increase, to this day. Sir Walter Raleigh was one of the first, if not the first, who began importing it largely into Great Britain, and by this traffic he realized an immense amount of money.

It was but some few weeks after the visit of Sir Walter Raleigh's relief ship, that Sir Richard Grenville arrived with several vessels; and finding no one upon the island, and unwilling even to *seem* to have abandoned the project of forming a settlement there, he left *fifteen* men, plentifully supplied with provisions, and all other necessary articles, and returned to England. The next year, Raleigh sent out a large expedition to his dear colony, which may be truly said to have been to him as the apple of his eye. The command of this expedition was given to Captain John White, who appears, from all the varied accounts given of him, to have been a most excellent and worthy man. By this expedition, was sent over a charter for a city, to be named after its illustrious founder, Raleigh. Captain White was also named the governor of this city. The company first touched at the Island of Roanoke, for the purpose of communing with the small band left there by Grenville, and to render them assistance, if they might need any. Not one of these fifteen poor unfortunates

was ever discovered alive, nor could their fate be ascertained with any degree of certainty. Owing to the refusal of the naval officer to unite with him in his explorations and wanderings, Governor White was forced to relinquish all hope whatever of founding the city and colony which he had been ordered to establish by Raleigh, and remained, during the whole of his stay in America, upon the Island of Roanoke. His daughter, Mrs. Dale, gave birth to an infant, the first child born of white parents in the country, and who was most appropriately named, after her native soil, Virginia. After remaining in the country some months, White sailed over to England, at the request of the colonists, who wished him to procure supplies for them. He left behind some hundred and twenty persons, intending to return, and assist them in the course of a few months. When he arrived in England, he found all, from the meanest subject to the Queen herself, engaged with the greatest zeal, upon plans of repelling the Spanish Armada; and it was several months before he could obtain even two vessels, laden with supplies. With these he set sail; but soon meeting with a Spanish force superior to his own, he became engaged with it, and was too much injured to proceed any further. He returned to England, and was unable to get even necessary repairs performed, for a great length of time. After the vessels were prepared for their voyage, White was destined to suffer still greater delay, in consequence of the transfer by Raleigh of his possessions in America to a company in England, among whom was Richard Hakluyt, the skilful editor of a great number of books of travel. In consequence of these and other delays, it was three years before Governor White was enabled to re-visit the colony, and carry back the aid for which he had been sent. His arrival was too late, for not one of the settlers was to be seen. Their houses were razed to the ground, and a fort was erected, with the word "Croatan" carved upon it, indicating, in all probability, the point whither they had gone. White made an attempt to reach this spot, but repeated tempests drove him from the coast, and he was forced either to return to England, or to endanger his own life, in a vain attempt to save the lives of others. His duty to himself, and his remaining family, impelled him to the latter course, which he pursued, and he arrived in safety in England. On the return of Governor White to England, the company, greatly shocked by the awful tidings he brought concerning the colony, seem to have given up all hopes of being able to found a settlement in Virginia, and to have left the colonists to their fate. Not thus was it with Walter Raleigh. He still nourished the hope and belief that a colony would yet be founded upon the shores of Virginia. According to creditable authority, he sent no less than *five* successive messengers to America, to learn the fate of the colonists; but in vain. All efforts at colonization seem now to have been abandoned; and at the time of the death of Queen Elizabeth, *one hundred and twenty* years after America was first discovered, not an Englishman was to be found within the limits of this hemisphere—nor, indeed, was there to be met with in Virginia a white man of any nation. It seemed to be an expression of the will of God, that this country should not be settled by white men.

ART. III.—THE RECIPROCAL INFLUENCES OF RAIL-ROADS AND MANUFACTORIES.

IN one of the closing pages of Mr. Mackay's very clever work on the United States, he remarks :—

"If the industry of from twenty to thirty millions of people, with limited means, have raised England to her present pinnacle of greatness and glory, what will the industry of one hundred and fifty millions of people yet effect in America, when brought to bear on resources almost illimitable? We have turned our coal and iron to account, and the world has, by turns, wondered at and envied the result. The American stock of coal and iron is thirty times as great as ours. What will be the fabric of material greatness which will spring from resources thirty times as great as ours?"

Six years ago, Mr. Cobden, the leader of the free trade party in England, whose opinions, as a statesman and a practical manufacturer, are entitled to the highest consideration, said to an American calico printer: "The United States have a virtual monopoly of raw cotton; and the central coal measures of her great valley, where materials, power and subsistence can be combined with the greatest possible economy of human labor, will soon attract capital and skill, and become the chief seats of the cotton manufacture."

In the words of Mr. Webster, "The Mississippi valley will soon be America."

Now, if we are to have such an immense population in *this* America, and if we are to make such progress in the chief departments of skilled industry, it is worth while to regard, closely, the influences that will direct the location of this population, and their artificial means of communication and interchange with each other and with other countries.

As long as our government offers millions of acres of fertile land for sale at the price of two days' labor for each acre, our agricultural districts will not be peopled densely, and the immensity of our agricultural surplus products, creating an excess of supply over demand, will soon force us into the processes of refining and condensing these products. Even now, we are compelled to turn the grass into beef, and the corn into pork. We cannot much longer import salt from Liverpool, and send it back to the same point for sale, even if put in barrels of beef and pork. What of our surplus is bulky, we must compress; what is perishable, we must change into other forms. By getting rid of the refuse and perishable parts of this surplus, by improvements in our refining tools, by a systematic division of labor, and by shortening the routes of transit, we can take the *ultimate*, and, therefore, the *best* markets of the world.

The physics of our valley clearly indicate that our northern districts will chiefly be appropriated to the production of the cereals, and the southern to that of sugar and the fibrous staples; while the people of the centre, and where our great natural cross-roads meet,

will be engaged in the combination of these rude staples with their rude coals, minerals and subsistence. The coals, iron ore, and grasses, being more ponderous, will attract the wheat on the one side and the cotton on the other. Besides, in northern latitudes, the climate is too severe, and the atmosphere too highly charged with electricity, for the easy manufacture of textile fabrics; and, in the southern latitudes, the climate is too enervating for continuous labor in mills and workshops.

At this centre, then, towards which nearly all the great rivers of the valley converge, will be the presses, the planes, the crucibles, and all the other reducing and purifying instruments required in the preparation of our surplus products for distant markets. When we have winnowed out the chaff; when the dirt has fallen through the sieve; when we have taken off the bark and the sap; when we are extensively using labor-saving and hand-multiplying machines, we shall find our best markets with the people who either cannot or will not use such machines.

In the economy of nature, like has the strongest affinity for unlike, and the most valuable results are obtained from their combination. So, in society, the strong associates with the weak, and the story of the giant and the dwarf illustrates the principle. The man of capital loans to him who has less than he needs, and the man of skill exchanges with him who lacks skill. "Two of a trade," says the proverb, "can never agree," because, indeed, they have nothing to exchange with each other, and the marriage of man with man would not be more barren of increase than the continuous union of the energetic machine-using European with the equally energetic and machine-using American.

Our great advantages in the convenience and excellence of our minerals, motive powers and subsistence; in our light taxes and perfect security to person and property, will enable us to drive out all competition in home markets for all the coarser metallic and textile fabrics. The surplus that we may have to exchange for tea, coffee, spices, and whatever cannot be acclimated at home, must be forwarded and distributed with the utmost economy. We must secure high wages and profits to our machine-tenders, and to those who furnish materials and food, and to home carriers by perfecting the instruments and shortening the routes of transit. In very many instances we are now employing far more labor and capital in extra transportation than would be required in the processes of conversion at home.

Our best markets, then, must be with the people who do not use labor-saving machinery, and who have not skill and energy equal to our own. These people live on the southern Atlantic, the Indian and the Pacific oceans. They now buy our cotton, hemp, and provisions, and pay the heavy cost of circuitous carriage and multiplied factorages. We must, and shall, enlarge these markets and sustain our present high rates of capital and labor by reductions in carriage and in lessening the number of middle-men.

In this country, the officers of government, with their retainers, can

never build up a city; and our rail-roads can never be located chiefly to facilitate military operations. The position of both, the extent of the one and the profits of the other, will be the result of material causes; on the exertion of individuals pursuing individual objects, and who look for support and profit in diminishing the cost of production, classification, or carriage.

No city here can expect great progress unless it either fabricates or assorts. New-Orleans, perhaps, has now an excess of population for the "commission business" of the Mississippi valley. We now send our rude staples chiefly to one foreign port, from which the vessels of the carriers generally return in ballast. The products of these staples are classified and distributed at Liverpool, and the equivalents of these staples are received in and assorted at New-York, and, therefore, Liverpool and New-York increase rapidly, and New-Orleans can hardly hold her own.

When we condense and combine these staples at home, our city factors will not only receive larger commissions on more valuable commodities, but will give employment to a host of assorters and carriers. The variety of exports will be directly and more speedily exchanged for an equal variety of imports, which, in the processes of assortment and distribution, will give equal profits, and employ an equal amount of labor.

If these general views are correct, cannot we say with some degree of certainty:

First, That the chief rail-roads in this level valley must run northwardly and southwardly; connect districts of different climates, and of exchangeable products, and facilitate the combination of northern and southern staples with the convenient coals, minerals and subsistence on the lower sections of the Ohio, Green, Wabash, Illinois and Missouri rivers, that descend towards one common centre, and furnish the cheapest possible means of transporting heavy, bulky and cheap materials?

Second, That the roads now made, or in progress, from the Atlantic seaboard westwardly, are sufficient connections with that seaboard and with Europe; and that our most strenuous efforts should be directed, first to improve and increase our home means of intercommunication and interchange, and then to connect our manufacturing centre by the shortest practicable route with our best seaport on the Pacific?

Third, When our natural highways are improved, and the most suitable artificial highways have been constructed; when we have turned our physical resources and skill to the most account; our great cities will be the great workshops on and near our central coal fields, where all the elements that enter into ordinary fabrics can be collected and combined with the greatest economy of human labor; and, next, at one or more points where the products of those workshops are gathered and assorted for distant markets?

If our rivers are not improved to cheapen freights, and a rail-road is not constructed to quicken travel to New-Orleans, we must be connected with all the Atlantic markets by routes through our seaboard cities. At the eastern terminus on the Mississippi River of the most

favorable route to the Pacific, whether at New-Orleans, St. Louis, or some intermediate point, there will be, *eventually*, the great city of America, because it will be the chief point for the assortment of the surplus products of one or many hundred millions of hands, and hand-multiplying machines, and of the returning equivalents from the many millions of unskilled laborers on the Southern Atlantic, Indian and Pacific oceans.

Of the twenty-nine millions of people in Great Britain, not five millions are directly employed in and supported by manufactures—not three millions are operatives. These few machine-tenders are now controlling the markets of the world in iron, woollen and cotton fabrics. “They have raised England,” in the words of Mr. Mackay, “to her present pinnacle of greatness and glory.” We need fewer hands to effect the same results. To say nothing of our natural increase, we shall, in the next twenty years, receive from manufacturing Europe more weavers, spinners and hammer-men than now fill the workshops of Great Britain. With their aid we shall work up our cotton at home, and instead of exporting a staple valued at a hundred millions of dollars, we shall export its products valued at five hundred millions of dollars, and to a great extent, by southwardly and westwardly routes.

The cost of connecting the coal fields and the manufactures of England with tide water, by rail-roads and canals, with all their appurtenances, has already exceeded three hundred millions of dollars. This enormous investment has, on the whole, yielded large dividends, and been productive of immense benefits to England.

To connect the eastern margin of the Appalachian coal field with tide water, we have, in the last thirty years, expended, directly and indirectly, over sixty millions of dollars; and the savings in fuel made thereby to one city alone, New-York, are more than enough to pay a yearly dividend of ten per cent. on that expenditure.

Now, in view of what has been done elsewhere to lessen the cost of carriage on materials and products, and to connect a few energetic, skilful and machine-using people, with many unskilled consumers, what an insignificant sum is seventy-five or twice seventy-five millions of dollars, if its expenditure will connect our present and prospective workshops with the markets afforded by the many millions of field laborers on the Pacific and Southern oceans!

ART. IV.—THOUGHTS ON A RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM FOR NEW-ORLEANS.

(No. III.)

THE rail-roads suggested in the preceding article were predicated on what may be defined *commercial geography*, and bore reference chiefly to the disposal of surplus products of our agriculture. Hamilton Smith, Esq., of Kentucky, a gentleman to whose public spirit and ability the South and West are very deeply indebted, has,

in the article alluded to, reviewed the question in lights altogether new; and while employing a set of premises perfectly distinct, has arrived at precisely the same conclusions. Mr. Smith has left the application of his argument to be made. It is indeed with much diffidence that we comply with his request in adding either note or comment to his admirable letter; but it would be at once disingenuous and impertinent to be so insensible to the compliment as to deny the request.

There are two species of exchanges, those of agriculture, and those of manufacture. The first of these have for their origin difference of climate—for, of course, exchange must always depend on variety of production—and, consequently, following a line of varying latitude, they will pursue a course bearing northerly and southerly. Such, then, is the direction of roads for the interest of the agriculturist in this great centre of the earth.

The lines of artificial exchanges depend, however, on different grounds. First, for the producing points.—Political economy reduces this to a nutshell: "The coals, iron-ore and natural grasses," says Mr. Smith, "being more ponderous, will attract the wheat on the one side, and the cotton on the other." Coals (or water-power) and corn, must locate the cotton manufacture; coals, corn, and iron, when combined, must locate manufactures of all kinds. So small and imperfect is our knowledge of the mineralogy of Missouri and Arkansas, that, while all that is known of their mineralogy corroborates the conclusions concerning these states, as laid down in my first paper from commercial and agricultural considerations, I shall take leave to confine the application of Mr. Smith's principles to Kentucky and Tennessee.

Examine the *industrial* geography of Kentucky and Tennessee. The cotton region terminates about midways in the latter; the corn region proper ends on a line running through the centre of Kentucky. A belt of country, including part of each state, lies between those two limits: this belt may be considered the tobacco region. The great Illinois coal-basin runs into Kentucky as far as Bowling Green, and thence across Green River to Cannalton on the Ohio. Side by side with these coal measures, are beds of rich ores, lead, iron, &c. The line of a Louisville and Memphis rail-road will be seen by the map to intersect the edges of the different beds, running alternately from the iron to the coal, from the coal to the iron. Now, this combination would, in any event, locate the corn and cotton; but in this case the cotton and corn are almost on the very ground with the coal and iron; and even, though they be not immediately on it, there is Louisville, a great corn market, at one end of the rail-road; Memphis, a great cotton market, at the other. From the Tennessee to the Ohio, along the line of a Memphis and Louisville rail-road, will, therefore, spring up at every stream a cotton-mill, and at every well-lying ore-bed, a furnace. These Green River and Cumberland sites must, therefore, on the showing of Mr. Smith's admirable reasoning, become producing points of artificial exchanges: the Birminghams, Sheffields, Lawrences and Lowells of western Ken-

tucky and western Tennessee. Nor, be it observed, is this philosophy of Mr. Smith a mere idle theory; it is a philosophy which he has based on facts and figures; a philosophy on which, having staked his industry and wealth, he has established at Cannalton with triumphant success. The producing points in this case are, therefore, established beyond all cavil; lying between the Tennessee and the Ohio, they simply await a rail-road to give them outlets.

In the next place, let us inquire, where must those producing points send their products for distribution? Manufacturers must of course seek those outlets where it is not met by like products from nearer points. This is perfectly clear, all else being equal, when it is recollected that transportation is one item of cost. With this plain premise, let us turn for a moment to the industrial geography of the valley. The western edge of the Appalachian coal-fields runs from about Guyandotte on the Ohio to Huntsville in Alabama; rich iron ores lying immediately beside these beds, the corn of Eastern Tennessee, and the cotton of Alabama close at hand, the western edge of the Appalachian coal-basin is destined to furnish sites of great manufacturing activity. The Illinois coal measures, accompanied by iron, lead, breadstuffs, &c., will necessarily bring with them the industrial sceptre all along their route to Chicago on the north, and to St. Louis on the northwest. The coal, and iron, and zinc, and copper, and corn of Southeastern Missouri, foreshadowing as by the flight of an eagle the seat of industrial empire, presents an impassable barrier to distribution on the West. Shut out, then, by sites of equal advantages in all other respects, and superior advantages in location, from the markets on the west, the northwest, the north, the southeast, and the south, where, let me ask, must those producing points, between the Cumberland River and Green River, forward their productions, but to Louisville for distribution in the Northeast, and to Memphis for distribution in the Southwest? Would you bring them to the country of the Merrimack, where the raw material of the iron-mountain combines with the cereals of the Osage to build up a 'labor-saving' 'machine-using' thrift: would you bring them to Huntsville, to compete with local advantages of manufactures on the edges of the Appalachian coal-fields and iron mines? 'Our best markets,' says Mr. Smith, 'must be with those people who do not use labor-saving machinery;' and who, it may be added, do not enjoy the same facility of manufacturing elements—food, and raw material. Where, then, must the manufactures of Western Kentucky and Tennessee look for an outlet, but at the key of the great Delta of the Mississippi, the outlet to the agriculture of the South and Southwest—the city of Memphis?

With the producing points of artificial exchanges situated on the edges of the coal and iron of Tennessee and Kentucky; with the outlet for the supplies and demands of those points lying by way of Louisville on the northeast, and by way of Memphis on the southwest, there can be very little doubt as to the rail-road pointed out by these well-attested principles of Mr. Smith. Clearly, his reasonings suggest a Memphis and Louisville road. Nor is this line more plain-

ly defined by the mineralogical geography of the valley, than it is by its agricultural relations; running northerly and southerly, it connects different degrees of latitude, different climates, and different productions; it throws into the hands of the merchants for assortment, the corn of the North, the tobacco and hemp of the middle belt, the cotton and sugar of the South.

Mr. Smith's letter is so rife with principles of varied and useful application, that we must content ourselves with the simple illustration of one instance of their point and force. We cannot, however, dismiss the subject, without asking whether the State of Kentucky will delay any longer some energetic action in a work that promises, on the unquestionable showing of one of her very ablest citizens, to build up within her borders at least one Pittsburgh and one Lowell? What will Tennessee do in the case? Will she grasp at the iron crown of manufacture, or let it pass away quietly into the hands of Missouri? Louisville, Clarksville and Memphis are quite alive to the importance of this road, and everything at those points is in train, awaiting only the match to be put to it by New-Orleans. The first and last question then, is, what will New-Orleans do, in reference to a Memphis and Louisville rail-road?

ART. V.—MORTALITY AND HYGIENE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

FENNER'S SOUTHERN MEDICAL REPORTS.

THE volume before us is a striking improvement upon that which was published a year ago by the editor. He has bestowed more pains upon his own compositions, and succeeded in obtaining abler and more thorough contributions from the pens of others. The arrangement is also more complete, and the selections, with few exceptions, better adapted to the objects of the work. With such advances, and the promise of similar ones in the future, it is but fair to argue great popularity and eventual success to the editor, who richly deserves it for his assiduous and almost unrequited efforts in the past in aid of medical literature and general hygiene throughout the southern states.

In all the leading and learned professions, the South, with a degree of intelligence and general merit at least equal, in many respects, we believe, superior, to that of the North, has been content to rely upon it for the supply of her text-books and authorities. Though a book-reading, we have never become a book-making people, but have rather left that department to those who have converted it into a trade, and have regulated their schedule of prices more by the extent of sheepskin and gilt lettering than by the unimportant consideration of mere merit. It is scarcely a figure of speech to say, that abridgments and compilations have a value in the direct ratio to the quantity of cubical inches contained in them, and in the inverse ratio to the number of ideas. Nor should we complain so much if this were

all. Our school-books come to us from this quarter often tainted, dexterously and insidiously, with doctrines which strike at the root of our institutions and our security. In law, we receive comments upon the Constitution of the Union, which put interpretations upon that instrument, such as the South has never received, and as her statesmen have always battled against; and these commentaries are the only ones which are placed in the hands of our sons, whom we expect to be preserved in the faith of their fathers. We will not speak of theology, though, God knows, that has been vitiated enough in the thousand *isms* which have been tacked on to it, and in that crowning triumph which is about to throw the Bible itself overboard, in rejecting its teachings, in vindication and justification of the institution of slavery. In medicine, things are, if anything, worse. "On coming South," says Dr. Cartwright, "the physicians of the North find no such class of persons as those whom they have mostly studied to treat. They not only find no complaints arising from want of food, clothing, fire, and the common necessities of life, such as they have been accustomed to see in the hospitals; but they find one-half of the population composed of a people whose anatomy and physiology is a sealed book to them. The southern schools, instead of being as they now are, northern institutions located at the South, using the same text-books and echoing the same doctrines, should take upon themselves its correction, and have their own text-books, containing, not only the anatomy, physiology, and therapeutics applicable to the white race of people, but the anatomy, physiology, &c., of the black race also. As soon as they do this, the empire of medical learning will come South, where the study of two races of people will give students better opportunities of acquiring knowledge than the one race at the North.

But we have not space to push this subject any further at present; the object of our paper being simply an examination of Dr. Fenner's volume, and such extracts from it as we think deserving of a more general extension and consideration than can be given them through his circulation.

The leading paper in the series is from the pen of the editor, and embraces a monthly report of the weather, the streets, the river, the principal diseases, &c., of New-Orleans, during the year 1850, made up and condensed from a daily diary preserved at his office. Such reports, for a long series of years and from different localities, with the admirable meteorological tables it embodies, would do more to perfect our knowledge of climatology and diseases than all the elementary treatises in existence.

We pass over the elaborate report of the Board of Health, drawn up by Dr. Barton, the admirable analysis and classification of the diseases of the city for 1850, made by Dr. Simonds, and the Report on Fevers, by Dr. Fenner. In this last there is a recapitulation, which has general interest enough to be extracted:—

"The following statistics are made out from the annual reports of the Board of Health and of the Charity Hospital:

"Nearly *one-eighth* of all the deaths in this city, during the year 1850, were caused by *fever*; total, 7,819; fevers, 920.

"Nearly *one-fourth* of the deaths in the city occurred in the Charity Hospital. Total, 7,819; Charity Hospital, 1,884.

"Of all the deaths at the Charity Hospital, nearly *one-sixth* occurred from *fever*. Total, 1,884; fevers, 318.

"Of all the deaths from *fever* in the city, about *one-third* occurred at the Charity Hospital. Total, 920; at the Charity Hospital, 318.

"Of all the patients admitted into the Charity Hospital this year, more than *three-fifths* were for *fever*. Total admitted, 18,476; for *fever*, 11,768.

"The mortality from *fever* this year is much less than the last, being 920 against 1,370; whilst the number of cases was vastly greater, as is shown by the number of *fever* cases admitted into the Charity Hospital; admitted for *fever* in 1849, 7,591; admitted for *fever* in 1850, 11,768."

On the subject of cholera, in another paper, the editor has some interesting remarks. We select those which are worthy of attention among our planters.

"I know several instances in which intelligent planters, having large families, commenced apparently the most judicious precautions against cholera, as soon as they heard of its arrival on the continent. They had all filth removed from about their negro quarters, the cabins whitewashed and lime thrown under them, and strict attention paid to the quality of food used; yet in no instance was the epidemic warded off by these precautions, but in several it prevailed with extraordinary virulence.

"The most successful prophylactic course I have heard of was practised by a good Methodist acquaintance of mine, who is a pretty large sugar planter. As soon as cholera appeared on his place, he made all hands quit work, and permitted them to go into a regular frolic. Whiskey and the fiddle were called in requisition, and for two or three days the plantation presented a scene of unrestrained merriment and mirth; he did not permit them to drink to intoxication, but sufficient to produce a pleasant exhilaration. He informed me that hardly a new case occurred after the commencement of the frolic, and he is clearly of opinion that it had a most beneficial effect. I am strongly inclined to concur with him, and should resort to the plan under similar circumstances.

"Much has been said since the last visitation of cholera about the exemption of *pine-wood regions* from its ravages; and I am inclined to think there is much truth in the remark. I mentioned in my first paper that in the general *stampede* from this city, on the outbreak of the disease in December, 1848, some negro traders took their negroes over the lake near Madisonville and Covington, and that they there suffered severely; but the disease did not spread among the inhabitants. Dr. Gilpin, a very intelligent physician, who resides at Covington, informed me that he knew several instances of persons contracting the disease here and carrying it over there, but without com-

municating it to others who remained there. And yet the little town of Gainsville, on Pearl river, which runs through a region of pine, was severely scourged during the last summer."

Paper five is a report upon the meteorology, vital statistics and hygiene of the state of Louisiana, read before the Medical Society of the state by Dr. E. H. Barton, President. This document has been considered so valuable, that a large number of copies, with diagrams, were published by some of the Life Insurance Companies for general distribution. Dr. Barton gives a very dark picture of the mortality of New-Orleans, but accompanies it with many wise and wholesome suggestions, which, if adopted by the public authorities, would restore the city to a sound sanatory condition. But who will heed such suggestions at a time when a cotton bale seems to be of more importance than a human life? This paper places Dr. Barton in the front rank of the vital statisticians and sanatory reformers of the present age.

In the following remarks, Dr. Barton adverts to the causes influencing the meteorological condition of Louisiana:—

"There are causes influencing our meteorological condition, which, in a proper estimate of our climate, we cannot overlook. I allude to the great modifying power of *large inland bodies of water* upon it. I am indebted to my friend, Professor Forshey, for the interesting computation. The whole area of the state of

Louisiana is	- - - - -	48,972 square miles.
Of this—		
Marsh alluvion, west of delta, (or Vermillion River) - - - -	2,880	"
Mississippi delta, south of Red River (Lyell's limit of delta) - - -	12,514	"
Mississippi delta, north of Red River (within Forshey's delta) - - -	3,420	"
Red river alluvion above Avoyelles, -	1,656	"
Ouachita do. above Boeuf River, -	900	"

Making an aggregate, including flat lakes, of - - - -	21,370	"
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All this is not constantly under water—but it is so more or less, and *constantly* subject to it. This does not include the alluvions of the smaller streams, and some, he admits, may have been reclaimed by levees. He farther states, that of the whole alluvion, there is uncultivable more than half, say 12,000 square miles, including shallow lakes.

"You see, then, that about *one-eighth* of the state is constantly under water, and that more than *two-fifths* of it are subject to inundation."

We furnish a few additional extracts from the report:—

HEALTH OF LOUISIANA.—"It will be observed, (for the aid of memory and observation,) I have classed the parishes in both districts into RIVER, SWAMP and UPLAND, according to their geographical location, at the foot of the table, and it will be seen that the average of the SWAMP parishes of Louisiana, which have heretofore been charac-

terized, by those unacquainted with our state, as the dread and perennial abodes of disease and death, the mortality, (deducting cholera,) has been less than one-half of one per cent. per annum (0.44), with the whites, and with it but $\frac{6.3}{100}$ of 1 per cent! In the river parishes it was a fraction over 1 per cent. (1.03); and with the upland, $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. (1.57)! We should be amply satisfied with this showing, and it is the only answer that is required to the blasting and enduring criticisms upon the salubrity of the rural districts of this country, which have so long abused both popular and scientific credulity abroad. I am duly sensible that the country is much more healthy now than when first subdued to the purposes of culture; it then partook, with all new countries, of the maladies incident to a change from a state of nature. Its sanatory condition since has been constantly advancing, under the ameliorating hand of cultivation, and probably no part of our common country is more favored with this choicest of blessings. In comparing the western with the eastern districts under the classification I have adopted, it will strike you how different they are as to salubrity—how much more healthy the eastern are; it is easily explained: all agricultural countries are most sickly when first opened to cultivation;—the eastern have passed through that lustrum; the western are now suffering under it."

VITAL STATISTICS OF NEW-ORLEANS.—"The vital statistics of this city have been, until comparatively a recent period, almost untrodden ground: 'the horrid devastating epidemics' have been written of and described; the forbidden months, 'the dead season,' have hurried thousands from our midst upon the wings of wealth; catacombs of those who dared to tempt the lurid shores, or were destitute of the means of flight, have been long buried with their hopes, and been rapidly forgotten. The survivors alone have been counted; the dead have not been missed in the mighty throng that the love of thrift has brought to succeed them in the large spoils here offered to the industrious and enterprising, and the city has been characterized abroad as a great Golgotha, and signalized for its perennial pestilence. And what record has been made of the *past*, for the benefit of the *future*? *that future which to us is the present*? For more than fifty years this important entrepot has been in possession of a race believed to be the most intelligent and enterprising of all that dwell upon earth; yet they, in the great contest for mammon, have left but few records to tell us of that past, as a beacon and warning for the guidance of the future. The value of that knowledge will be appreciated, when we reflect that we grow wiser by degrees; that our present suffering depends upon our ignorance of the past; and to successive generations, the future can only be instructive, when the errors of the past are pointed out, and shunned as objects for our avoidance. To be sure, suffering is the chastisement, in the hands of Wisdom, out of which is often wrought the most eminent good. The effort, then, that will carry success with it, will show that the chastening and the love have gone together.

HOW TO RESTORE THE HEALTH OF NEW-ORLEANS.—Dr. Barton concludes his address with several important suggestions under this head, which should receive the attention of every citizen.

"Now, the great and important practical question, to which all else is subsidiary, occurs—CAN ALL THIS BE REMEDIED? Are we suffering from 'medicable ills?' or must a mortality of more than $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. be suffered to continue—the city to remain slowly to increase, be stationary, or decline under the great rivalry of other more favored spots? As the rapid improvements of science can almost everywhere supply the almost unequalled advantages here offered to us by nature, every intelligent physician will at once join the impulsive response of every Louisianian, *that there must be remedies, and that WE MUST APPLY THEM.*

"Let us see what they are:

"The great object is to remove filth of all kinds as soon as possible, before it contaminates the air we breathe and the water we drink and cook with, and use for all domestic purposes. This is done by SEWERS; and there is no city in the world better adapted to them—where the power to answer their purposes is to be had, as it were, without expense, and where they would do a tithe as much good as they would here. I have no time to go into details now; the demonstration has, I must hope, been made in the Board of Health Report of 1849, together with the plan, drawing, &c. It is not to be doubted that *all the filth* that contaminates the atmosphere, from which we have anything to fear, can thus be made away with, and that speedily: night-soil, urine, kitchen and street filth, etc., all, indeed, excepting the dead, and the few cemeteries within the limits of the corporation, should be immediately closed, and all slaughter-houses, manufactories, and extensive stables, removed to the outskirts.

"All present privies, below or in the soil, should be immediately *emptied and filled up*, and, in their places, jars or barrels, impermeable to fluids or gases, substituted for them, with proper valvular coverings to prevent the escape of gases. At present, the water is so near the surface, except in and near Levee-street, that no great depth can be excavated, but the water rises in it near the surface, and, in rainy seasons, it is subject to overflow; and as we know that night soil floats on water, *it is always* near the surface, and gives off its noxious gases to contaminate the atmosphere. The members of the Board of Health full well know the trouble our health wardens have every year, during the rainy season, (which occurs at midsummer,) to remove the constant complaints made to us upon this subject. My impression is that here is our only remedy—*no underground privies*—and it will recommend itself by its great economy, as well as for its cleanliness and salubrity.

"All the present draining-canals about the city should be covered, as the Melpomene, Gormley, Claiborne, and those going to the basins of the draining companies; low lots filled up, and all stagnant water prevented, for in this condition evaporation concentrates its poisons—vegetable infusoria, of the class called *algæ*, as well as fungoid vegetation, are rapidly generated. Many tribes of these vegetable productions appear to die with great rapidity—sometimes in one or two days—and then decompose. Immediately after these, animal-cular life appears. Stagnant water is the most favorable to this

order of vegetable productions, which, in giving rise to animalcular life, appears to keep pace with the animalized excreta discharged in the house-drainage of towns. Certain degrees of motion in water are unfavorable to the production of algæ and other infusorial plants, the tissues of which are destroyed by brisk motion. The same round of life and death also takes place in open and shallow reservoirs, and in open cisterns where the water is frequently changed. The eminent German naturalist, Ehrenberg, as one result of very extended observations, established the fact that the existence of visible animalculæ generally indicates the presence of a lower series of invisible animalculæ, descending in magnitude to the smallest monad of the most simple structure—so small, that there is probably no smaller organized creature on which it can feed, while, as is commonly conceived, by arresting organized matter on the very limits of the organic world, and converting it into its own nutriment, it furnishes, in its turn, sustenance to higher orders of animalcular life. Be this as it may, it is very certain that the presence of animalculæ, in large numbers, indicates the existence of animal and vegetable matter usually in a state of decomposition, which invariably acts injuriously if the water containing them is used largely for purposes of food, and the effects may be more immediate and marked when the animalculæ are large and numerous.

“Light is also necessary for the production of infusoria and fungoid vegetation, and their formation is prevented by such covering as excludes the light and heat of the sun.

“In an alluvion soil like ours, the most perfect paving is that which entirely excludes the possibility of evaporation from the sub-soil, and that is by stone blocks united by cement, with an angle of inclination to the side gutters, and these to the sewers. Running water from the river or water-works should be in constant use in dry weather in summer, and at such other times as may be ordered by the Board of Health; every street and yard should be cleared *every day, and the filth at once removed*. Health wardens should be appointed for every few squares, whose duty should be to inspect every yard and court *every day*, and every privy weekly or monthly. Trees should be planted in the streets to absorb the noxious gases and give out those which refresh and purify the atmosphere—to moderate the influence of reflected heat from brick walls and houses. It is a law of nature that the vegetable and animal kingdoms should be, as it were, supplemental the one to the other; animals, by breathing and exhaling air, load it with carbonic acid, and render it noxious to themselves; while vegetables absorb the acid gas and give out oxygen in its stead, and thus supply the animal kingdom with vital air. Then again, whatever elements an animal takes from the soil as food, it returns again to the earth in a different form, noxious to itself, but nevertheless furnishing, to the vegetable kingdom, abundant and wholesome nourishment. It is thus that the organic elements complete their circuit in living beings. Nothing is lost; it is only reproduced in another form. These principles lie at the root of the whole science of agriculture; while they constitute the basis of all economical and sanitary arrangements.”

TABLE,

Exhibiting the Mortality of the City of New Orleans since 1787, (with exceptions as stated,) with the ratios, the relative proportion dying at the Charity Hospital, and the dates of great physical changes in and about the city.—By Dr. E. H. Barton.

Years Embarked.	Average Population.	Average Mortality.	Ratio 1 to —	Ratio per cent.	Average Charitable Mortality to City Mortality per cent.	Dates of Physical Alterations and Improvements in the City and Neighborhood.
10 years. 1787-'97.	7,090	.488	14.38	6.95	1785, '91, '99—Crevasse above, affecting the city. 1796—Fortifications made around the city, and surrounded by trenches.
6 years. 1811-'15.	29,741	.969	30.82	3.42	1794-'97—Canal Carondelet dug. 1811—Canal Carondelet cleaned out. 1816—Crevasse.
1816-'20.	37,985	1.517	29.15	3.95	17.77	1817—First pavements commenced. 1820—Wooden sidewalks and curbing removed, and replaced with stone.
* 4 years, omitting 1821, 1821-'23.	44,539	2.065	21.17	4.72	17.60	1817-'20—Large enclosures of the batture. 1824—Gormley's Canal and Basin dug, about 1824-'25.
1826-'30.	47,834	1.707	27.68	3.61	21.8 ₂	1824-'32—Extensive paving done. 1825-'28—Melpomene Canal adopted from a natural drain, cleaned out and deepened.
* 4 years, omitting 1832, 1831-'35.	58,570	3.503	18.22	5.92	27.11	1831—Violent storm inundated back part of the city, to Dauphin street. 1832-'35—The Bank Canal of the 3d municipality dug to the Lake—7 miles.
* 4 years, omitting 1837, 1836-'40.	74,262	2.942	25.39	3.96	27.11	1832-'34—Extensive paving. 1835-'39—Forest growth cut down in rear of city, first municipality. 1836—Draining machine on Bayou St. John, drained the section in rear of first municipality.
1841-'45. 1846-'50. N. O. and Lafay- ette, for the last year.	90,000 109,693	3.993 7.622	23.29 15.33	4.43 6.93	21.20 24.71	1837, October—Violent storm inundated the rear of the city. Draining com- pany continued their operations. 1844—Violent storm inundated the city up to Burgundy street. 1845-'50—That section of the rear of the city between the canals Carondelet and Bank, in the rear of the central parts of the city, ditched, drained, and forest growth removed. 1849, May and June—Extensive inundation from Sauve Crevasse, extending as high up as Carondelet street.
TOTALS.			23.19	4.87	22.38	

* The total mortality of these years could not be procured.

† Extract from the report of the Physico-Medical Society on the epidemic yellow fever of 1850, by Drs. Randolph, Davidson and Marshall: "We would remind the Society of the evident co-existence existing between the enclosures of the batture and the recent unusual consecution of epidemic fevers in this city. P. S. I intended to have added a column embracing the average annual immigration from abroad; but the record has not been retained at our custom-house anterior to 1845, since when it has averaged about 30,000 per annum; but very few arriving in the summer and fall months."

MORTALITY OF THE COUNTRY PARISHES OF LOUISIANA—
EASTERN DISTRICT OF LA.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARISHES.	INCLUDING CHOLERA.			EXCLUDING CHOLERA.		
	Whites per cent.	Colored per cent.	Both per cent.	Whites per cent.	Colored per cent.	Both per cent.
1. Ratio of Mortality of the River Parishes, excluding New-Orleans, Lafayette and West Feliciana, and including other river towns.....	2.69	2.45	2.57	1.03	1.42	1.29
2. Ratio of Mortality of the Swamp Parishes.....	0.63	1.48	1.05	0.44	0.75	0.60
3. Ratio of Mortality of the Upland Parishes.....	1.74	1.77	1.75	1.57	1.61	1.57

CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARISHES OF THE WESTERN
DISTRICT OF LOUISIANA.

	Including Cholera.	Excluding Cholera.	
1. Ratio of mortality in river parishes, per cent.....	3.81	2.46	White and Colored.
2. Do. do. in swamp parishes, do.	3.52	3.42	
3. Do. do. in upland parishes, do.	6.21	6.06	

The paper which follows is by Professor C. G. Forshey, on the Hydrography of the Mississippi River, a subject which has engrossed his attention for many years. Professor Forshey furnishes also an interesting diagram of the river, and announces the discovery of a means of determining the high water level of all places in the delta for the past three or four centuries. "The summit of the buttress of the white ash tree is the registered mark. By questioning the tree in all parts of the delta, many disputed points in the physical history of the Mississippi valley can be settled."

Article IX. and the last to which we can refer, is by Dr. J. C. Simonds, on the sanatory condition of New-Orleans as illustrated by its mortuary statistics. Whilst admitting the high merit of this gentleman as a statistician, and his services to the city of New-Orleans, we have always maintained a defective principle at the bottom of his calculations. The period embraced is not long enough, and it so happens that the period is one of the most disastrous, in the estimation of every one, ever known in New-Orleans. Nor, in considering the mortality of the city, does Dr. Simonds pay sufficient regard to the character and habits of the persons dying. Dr. Dowler's "Meditations among the Tombs" of the first municipality, etc., should have put him upon this track, and modified, to some extent, his conclusions. We have admitted a high degree of mortality in New-Orleans, higher than in any other American city, but see nothing in the reasonings of Dr. Simonds, or any one else, to satisfy our mind that it is, as he represents it, a very black hole of Calcutta. There is not a citizen of New-Orleans, who has resided many years in its limits, who does not know this from his own experience and from that of his family and friends, to be untrue. Yet things are bad enough, God

knows, and there is infinite room for improvement. On many points Dr. Simonds should be answered; and if the task is not undertaken by some of our medical gentlemen, we shall take up the glove ourselves on the first favorable occasion.

There is one part of Dr. Simonds' paper which we cannot pass over in silence. Estimating the value of each life lost in the city during four and a half years, at \$400, (the value of a negro,) and the labor lost by these deaths, and by sickness, and the cost of burials, he arrives at the figures \$45,437,700, or an average loss of \$10,485, 623 per annum. Now, nothing in the world can be more absurd than such calculations, and so far as they refer to the *value of life*, nothing more revolting. Great God! has the almighty and ruling principle of dimes and dollars reached already to this? We believe that the Doctor himself will shudder at the reflection. The cost of *preventible* sickness may indeed be a subject of calculation, but to tell us how much money we should have had or saved were there no deaths at all, is a gross refinement, if there be no paradox in it, of reasoning and calculation. It supposes, too, that the indefinite advancement of a city population depends upon its health, and not upon commercial advantages and general position, which is manifestly absurd.

But Dr. Simonds has a suggestion which we heartily adopt, and trust that it will be at once accepted by the public authorities of the city, and that himself and Drs. Barton and Fenner, by acclamation, will be placed at the head of the proposed commission.

"A sanitary commission should be appointed by authority of the councils of New-Orleans and Lafayette, to examine fully into the hygienic condition of the city, including in its investigations the internal police of the hospitals, asylums, workhouses, and all public institutions; the condition of the poor and their dwellings; the supply of water, the various factories of gas, chemicals, etc.; the butcheries and dairies; the supplies of milk and bread; in fact, a complete and thorough survey of every thing pertaining to the sanitary condition of the city. The expenditure of \$5,000 or \$10,000 in such a survey, would probably save to the city hundreds of thousands of dollars, in the form of its most valuable property, the lives of its citizens.

"It is true that the grand jury examines into these matters, but as such bodies do not consist of persons specially selected for this purpose, they are not in general qualified for these investigations; they can only discover the most glaring evils; and the fact that some have been pointed out, shows that there are numerous others that might be discovered."

We conclude our paper with a lengthy extract from Dr. Simonds, in order that our readers may be fully possessed of his views and reasonings, in regard to the mortality of New-Orleans. The subject will have interest all over the nation.

Population of New-Orleans.

City census,.....	March, 1847.....	94,526
State do.....	August, 1847.....	79,503
United States do.....	July, 1850.....	116,407

Population of Lafayette by the United States census.

1840.....	3,207
1850.....	13,350

The census of the city of New-Orleans was taken by the city authorities in March, 1847, and amounted to 94,526. In the same year, in August, it was taken by order of the state, and amounted to 79,503. The United States census, nominally referred to July 1st, 1850, but really completed during the past winter, will not differ much from 116,407. The mean of these three censuses is 96,812, which may be fairly considered the average population of New-Orleans during the four and one-third years of which the deaths are known. Let it not be said that this underrates our true population. If the data furnished by the censuses are sufficiently correct to constitute the basis of taxation, of representation, and of the apportionment of the school fund, &c.,—if these censuses approximate sufficiently for all political and politico-economical purposes, why impugn their correctness when applied to the more important uses of the statist, in determining the hygiene and sanatory condition of the city.

I have not been able to obtain the census of Lafayette, as taken by the state in 1847; but if we assume that the population increased uniformly from 1840, the total of both cities would average, for the last five years, 106,885. Referring to the population of New-Orleans, as taken by the city in November, 1847, to the year 1846, the following table will show the population for each of the last five years:—

Estimated population of New-Orleans and Lafayette.

	New-Orleans.	Lafayette.	Both.
1846.....	94,526	7,546	102,072
1847.....	79,503	8,703	88,206
1848.....	90,276	10,037	100,313
1849.....	102,509	11,575	114,084
1850.....	116,407	13,350	129,757

The mean population of New-Orleans during this period is, therefore, 96,644; of Lafayette, 10,242; and of both cities, 106,885. We must now see what number of deaths occurred among this population.

Interments, as shown by the Dead-Books of the Board of Health of New-Orleans, and the Sexton's Book for Lafayette Cemetery.

BOOKS OF NEW-ORLEANS BOARD OF HEALTH.

1846, August 30th, to January 2d, 1847.....	1,480
1847, January 2d.....	7,515
1848, January 2d to April 30th.....	1,915
	<hr/> 9,430
From the tables of diseases.....	10,919
1848, May 1st, to 1849, April 30th.....	9,346
1849, May 1st, to 1850, April 30th.....	7,359
* Deduct Lafayette, January 1st to April 30th.....	173
	<hr/> 7,179
† 1850, May 1st to December 31st.....	5,488
	<hr/> 22,013

* Those from New-Orleans being only reported.

† Includes all interred in Lafayette.

	Carried forward,	29,013	10,919
LAFAYETTE CEMETERY.			
1846, September 1st to December 31st	281		
1847, January 1st	1,654		
1848, " "	784		
1849, " "	1,716		
1850, " April 30th,	418		
		4,853	
From examination of names		26,866	
			37,785

The details of the preceding table are given, that the amount may be verified, if desired; and it is arranged to agree, as nearly as possible, with the arrangement of the records. For the interments in the Lafayette Cemetery, I am indebted to the courtesy of Mr. Hicks, the sexton. It must be observed, that of the 37,785 deaths during the four and one-third years included in the table, 26,866 are directly obtained from the recorded names of the dead; the other 10,919 are from the tabular statements of disease; but all are derived from the manuscript records, to avoid the danger of typographical errors. The number of deaths is, therefore, certainly not over-estimated, but is known to fall short of the truth, inasmuch as it does not include the deaths in the Hebrew cemetery in Lafayette, (except for nine months,) nor the bodies of those used for anatomical purposes, nor a portion of those dying in the Charity Hospital, where two are frequently placed in the same coffin, and only one reported to the Board of Health.* The total, however, approximates to truth, and no more is required to show the fearful mortality of New-Orleans. We must next calculate the average annual mortality for this period, viz., the last four and one-third years.

The total of the annual population for four years, with one-third of the population for 1846, amounts to 466,384; the deaths amounting to 37,785, would therefore give, as the average annual mortality of New-Orleans and Lafayette, 8·10 per cent., or 1 in every 12, nearly. If we take the number given by the United States census, as the average population for the entire period, the mortality would be reduced to 6·7 per cent. Even if we were to take the highest numbers that have ever been obtained as the average population for the entire period, viz., for Lafayette, as above, and for this city, as taken by its authorities in February, 1851, *including one thousand added by order of the Council*, it would only amount to 135,301: and the mortality would be reduced to 6·4 per cent., a number sufficiently high to prove a greater mortality than that of any other city, but still far below the truth. In order to know whether this mortality be excessive, let us see what the statistics of other cities show.

I here present the mortality of the cities of the United States, carefully calculated by myself from authentic data. The data, the principles of the calculation, and the authorities, will be hereafter published, the result only being here given.

Average Annual Mortality of various Cities of the United States.

Boston	39 years, 1811 to 1849	2·4572
Lowell	13 " 1836 to 1848	2·1194
New-York	45 " 1805 to 1849	2·9692

* Without attempting, at this time, to estimate the additions to be made on these accounts, I will simply state, that the report of the Board of Health for 1849, shows that 2,745 died in the Charity Hospital, while only 2,304 were interred in its cemetery. A small portion of the difference were interred by friends in other cemeteries. In 1850 there died 1,884 in the hospital, while 1,446 were interred in its cemetery, according to the report of the Board of Health.

Philadelphia.....	34 years	1807 to 1840.....	2,5510
Baltimore.....	14 "	1836 to 1849.....	2,4917
Charleston.....	27 "	1822 to 1848 { Whites.....	2,4826
		{ Blacks.....	2,6458
		{ Both.....	2,5793
Savannah.....	8 "	1840 to 1847 Whites.....	4,1616
New-Orleans.....	41 "	1846 to 1850.....	8,1017

Average Annual Mortality of other places.

* Massachusetts, 1847-'48.....	1.59
† Twelve counties of England.....	1.93
† Twenty-six cities ".....	2.72
† London, { Males.....	2.74
{ Females.....	2.31
† Liverpool, { Males.....	3.53
{ Females.....	3.15
§ Liverpool, 1850.....	2.73
§ Manchester, { Males.....	3.65
{ Females.....	3.31

It will be seen that the mortality of New-Orleans is nearly double that of Savannah, the highest on the list, two and four-fifths times greater than that of New-York, and more than three times that of any other city. I must confess my surprise at the great mortality of Savannah, and must add, that it is highly probable that its mortality in former times was even greater, but I have not the data for the calculation. I have the deaths of whites annually from the year 1810, but have been unable to obtain the numbers of the white population of the city, anterior to 1840; I must also add, that I have not yet examined the mortality of Mobile, for a similar reason.

But it may be said that the year 1847 should not be included, as it was a very unusual year, nor the cholera period of 1848-'9, as this also constitutes an exception to the general healthiness of New-Orleans. I reply, first, that the cholera and all other epidemics are included in the calculations for the other cities;—but let us enter into a more accurate calculation on these points. The year 1849 is generally considered, in New-Orleans, a *healthy year, cholera excepted*, as has been repeatedly asserted by the medical profession and the press. During this year, Philadelphia, with a population three times that of New-Orleans, had fewer deaths by four hundred, and even if we deduct the deaths from cholera in the latter, the mortality of Philadelphia compared with the population, was but one-half that of New-Orleans. From 10,661 deaths in New-Orleans and Lafayette during the year, deduct 3,285§ deaths from cholera and cholera morbus—there remains 6,577; taking the population at 115,000, the mortality would be (excluding cholera) 5.719 per cent.

Again, let us take the year 1850. Our daily press announced to the world the continued healthiness of the city, the citizens rejoiced in its salubrity, and the medical profession were for the most part idle during the year. The Board of Health state that the cases of yellow fever were so few as scarcely to deserve notice; that cholera was at no time epidemic, and that if any epidemic prevailed, it was dengue, which is not a fatal disease. The Mayor says, in a message to the General Council, as published in the official newspaper:

"It affords me much pleasure to observe that the city has been perfectly

* Calculated from Registration Reports.

† Dr. Jarvis on Vital Force—Appendix.

‡ M'Culloch's British Empire.

§ Chambers' Edinburgh Journal, March 1, 1851.

|| The deaths from cholera in Lafayette are unknown; the interments from New-Orleans are, however, included in this number.

healthy during the past year, and free from all epidemic. This gratifying fact is in part attributable to the opening and laying out of streets in the rear of the city, a measure that must contribute not only to the increased salubrity, but also to the prosperity of New-Orleans; at the same time it is due to state that this exemption from disease is also to be ascribed, in a marked degree, to the energy of the Board of Health, who, with comparatively limited means at their disposal, have accomplished everything that could be done towards improving the sanatory condition of the community.

"The regular weekly publications of deaths by the Board have not been without their effect in checking the unfounded statements that were formerly circulated in regard to the mortality of New-Orleans, proving, as they have done, that with the rare exception of epidemics, to which all large cities are liable, we can lay claim to as great a share of health as is enjoyed by equal populous communities."

This, then, is a favorable year, and we can surely take this one as a test, and parade it before the world as a proof of the general salubrity of New-Orleans. The tables published by the Board of Health give 7,819 deaths; I can show omissions, of which no notice is made in the report, which would make the aggregate 8,086, being but 700 less than the average of the last four one-third years, including the cholera and the yellow fever of 1847. The mortality, therefore, of the healthy (for New-Orleans) year, 1850, was 6.22 per cent. This must convince the most skeptical. If New-Orleans is *healthy* when one in every sixteen persons dies, and when the admissions to the Charity Hospital amounts to one in every seven inhabitants, or 14.1 per cent., then should we be informed what would be admitted to be an unhealthy year, and what number of deaths is requisite to prove the insalubrity of this place.

Again: bearing in mind that the population of New-Orleans and Lafayette is less than 130,000, and that during the *healthy* year 1850, the deaths amounted to 8,086, look at Liverpool: with a population of 370,000, nearly three times that of New-Orleans, the deaths only amounted to 10,123; compared with the population, the mortality of this year was in Liverpool 2.736 per cent.—of New-Orleans 6.220 per cent.; or, while in every 1,000 sixty-two died in New-Orleans, only twenty-seven died in Liverpool. It has been said that the deaths in New-Orleans occur among those merely passing through the city; but Liverpool is the place of emigration for the greater part of all the Irish emigrants to all parts of the world. In fact, during the famine in Ireland, it was estimated that at one time there were in Liverpool 100,000 Irish paupers, men, women and children.

We, in New-Orleans, consider the past few weeks a period of unexamined health; let us, then, compare the weekly statement of deaths here with those in Boston:

		Deaths in Boston.	N. Orleans and Lafayette.
Week ending, 1851, February	22.....	70.....	139
"	March 1.....	78.....	135
"	" 8.....	77.....	135
"	" 15.....	70.....	148
"	" 22.....	69.....	157
"	" 29.....	74.....	127
"	April 5.....	81.....	140
"	" 12.....	71.....	162
"	" 19.....	57.....	180
		647.....	1319

The deaths in Boston are obtained from the Boston Medical and Surgical Journal, where are given full details of the causes of death, with the sex,

age and nativity; the deaths for New-Orleans are from a statement of the Secretary of the Board of Health, but the sum of the details is three less than the total given by him.

According to the late United States census, the city of Boston contains 8,000 more persons than the cities of New-Orleans and Lafayette, in which, during nine weeks of our healthy season, the deaths are more than double those of Boston. It is the duty of the Board of Health to investigate this subject thoroughly, to point out the causes of this large mortality, the classes of the community among whom it prevails, and the parts of the city in which it exists. It might point out the number dying without medical assistance, and the kind of medical aid; the length of time sick, and the period of residence here. The certificates are, I know, very defective upon many of these points; but until the Board make use of the data furnished, it cannot expect that the medical profession will render them more full. The publications of the Board only serve to prove an excessive mortality, without enabling any one to trace it to its source, that a remedy may be proposed.

These various comparisons show an unparalleled waste of human life, and it certainly demands immediate and efficient action from the city authorities.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—COTTON AND SUGAR TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS AND THE SOUTH FOR THE YEAR 1850-51.

Our planting friends will find the following recapitulation of the last year's crop and prices of great value, and we hope they will all study it. We extract from the New-Orleans Prices Current:

Cotton.—It is well known that in this leading branch of our commerce, the season opened with high hopes on the part of both producers and dealers. The previous year had closed upon greatly enhanced prices, which had given large profits to shippers, and this success, together with calculations of another short crop, stimulated speculation to an imprudent degree, and the result has been a reaction more disastrous than any that has occurred in the cotton trade since 1825. A brief summary of the season's operations will show the course of the market.

The first bale of the *new crop* (some 250 lbs.) was received here on the 11th August; being four days later than the first receipt of the previous year; and so backward was the crop that up to the 1st September only 67 bales had come to market, notwithstanding the prevalence of comparatively high prices, a few bales having been disposed of at 13½ a 15 cents per lb. During the greater part of September the quotation for a strict class of middling was 13 cents, but towards the close of the month supplies began to arrive pretty freely, and the prices fell off to 12½. This slight decline was soon recovered, however, under an active demand, and about the middle of October, our quotation for strictly middling was 13½ cents, being the highest point of the season. From the middle of October to the middle of December, prices were quite steady, the range for middling being 13½ a 13¾ cents, but at the latter period unfavorable. European advices produced a decline of ½ a ¼ cent per lb. This reduction caused a resumption of business, and the advices from Europe becoming more favorable, the market recovered to 13½ cents by the early part of January. About the middle of the same month, however, under the pressure of heavy receipts and a stringent money market, prices began to give way again, and being assisted in their downward inclination by advices of another of those extraordinary discrepancies in the Liverpool stock, to the extent of 60,000 bales, the figures for middling reached 12½ cents by the 1st February. At this point there was a slight recovery, but it was only momentary, as by the middle of February the

market was called upon to encounter the combined disadvantages of an unusually heavy stock, adverse accounts from abroad advancing freights and declining exchanges. Under the pressure of this combination of adverse circumstances prices rapidly gave way, and by the early part of March our outside quotation for strictly middling was reduced to 10½ cents. Here the market reached a firmer point, the circumstances which produced this last decline having been reversed, and by the latter part of the month prices had recovered to 11½ cents for middling. For a month succeeding, the rates fluctuated between 10½ and 11 cents, when early in May the market was again unfavorably affected by the character of the foreign advices, and also by the large increase in the receipts at the ports, as compared with the previous year; and as nearly every circumstance that has arisen since has been of a nature to increase the depression, there has been a constant yielding of prices, until they reached 6½ cents for middling Louisianas and Mississippi, or a decline on this description of nearly 7 cents per lb. from the highest point; being more than fifty per cent. In the lower grades, which have formed an unusually large proportion of the receipts of the past season, the reaction has been still more marked, there having been sales which would show a difference of sixty to seventy per cent. between the highest and lowest points. These descriptions of cotton, owing to their extraordinary abundance, have been comparatively depressed, and exceedingly difficult of sale, during most of the season. Indeed, it has been the common remark that no crop since that of 1843-44, (known as the "storm year") has contained so large a proportion classing inferior, and some planters have sent to market "bales of cotton" which proved to be trash or "motes," not worth the drayage from the levee. If the planting interest reaps any benefit from the swelling of the apparent receipts through the forwarding of such worthless stuff, the past season has probably afforded a good opportunity for its demonstration. The following tables will further illustrate the movements in our great staple.

Table showing the quotations for Low Middling to Good Middling Louisianas and Mississippi, with the Rates of Freight to Liverpool, and of sterling bills, at the same date.

1850.	Low Middling to Good Middling.	Sterling. Per cent. Prem.	Freights. Per lb.
September 14.....	12½ a 13½	9 a 10	13-32 a 7-16
October 2.....	12½ a 13½	8½ a 9	13-32 a 7-16
November 2.....	13½ a 13½	7 a 8	11 32 a ½
December 4.....	13 a 13½	7½ a 8½	— a 7-16
Jan. 1, 1851.....	12½ a 13½	7½ a 8	— a 13-32
February 1.....	12 a 13	7 a 7½	— a 9-13
March 1.....	9½ a 10½	7½ a 8½	— a 13-16
April 2.....	10 a 11½	9½ a 10½	— a ½
May 3.....	9½ a 10½	9½ a 10½	— a 7-16
June 7.....	8 a 9½	9½ a 11	— a ½
July 5.....	7½ a 9½	8½ a 10½	5-16 a ½
August 2.....	6½ a 8½	8½ a 10	7 16 a —

Table showing the product of Low Middling to Good Middling Louisiana and Mississippi Cotton, taking the average of each entire year for six years, with the Receipts at New-Orleans, and the total crop of United States.

	Total Crop. Bales.	Receipts at New-Orleans. Bales.	Average Price. Cents per lb.
1845-6.....	2,100,537	1,041,393	6½
1846-7.....	1,778,651	707,324	10
1847-8.....	2,347,634	1,188,733	6½
1848-9.....	2,728,396	1,100,636	6½
1849-50.....	2,095,706	797,387	11
1850-51 (estimate).....	2,350,000	995,036	11

The total receipts at this port since 1st Sept. last, from all sources, are 995,036 bales. This amount includes 44,816 bales from Mobile and Florida, and from Texas by sea; and this being deducted, our receipts proper are shown to be

950,220 bales, in which are included 18,051 bales received direct from Montgomery, &c., Alabama. This, then, would show an increase in our receipts proper, as compared with last year upon the same basis, of 152,833 bales. The total exports since 1st September, are 997,458 bales, of which 582,373 bales were shipped to Great Britain, 130,362 to France, 131,906 to the North and South of Europe, Mexico, &c., and 152,817 to United States ports. On a comparison of the exports with those of last year, there would appear to be an increase of 185,628 bales to Great Britain, 12,949 to France, 21,760 to the North and South of Europe, Mexico, &c., while to United States ports, there is a decrease of 61,026 bales. The total receipts at all the Atlantic and Gulf ports, up to the latest dates received—as shown by our General Cotton Table—are 2,331,464 bales, and the crop, when made up by the New-York Shipping List, will probably not vary much from 2,350,000 bales.

We have thus rapidly sketched the course of the market during a season of extraordinary vicissitudes, and such an one as we hope never to witness again. In glancing at the peculiarities of the season it may be safely remarked, that its prominent feature (and, as the sequel has proven, its prominent error) has been an under estimate of the production. This, as we have already intimated, led to the opening of the market at unfortunately high prices, which, under speculative action, were subsequently carried to a higher point than they have reached since 1839. These under estimates were to a greater or less extent general, and we think it may safely be asserted that a large majority placed the crop at or under 2,200,000 bales, while the bulk of the business during the first six or seven months of the season was done upon a basis of 2,100,000 to 2,150,000 bales. The estimates of very few parties were beyond what the actual crop is likely to be, and these were looked upon as so extravagant that their opinions provoked discussion and animadversion to a degree that has given them widespread notoriety. And thus is added another to the many examples of the fallacy of early estimates of a crop whose culture occupies so broad an extent of country, embracing nearly every variety of soil and climate, and requiring many months to determine definitely the result. The error has been followed by most disastrous consequences, but that those who fell into it, (and they embrace planters, factors and purchasers,) were honest in their opinions, their own losses should be taken to demonstrate.

In viewing the causes of this astounding reaction, the leading ones, of course, are the under estimates of the crop, and the consequent elevation of prices to what has proved to have been an extravagant point. But as a collateral one, growing out of these, we may mention that the entire or partial stoppage of many of our home mills, owing to the high prices of the raw material, and excessive stocks of manufactured articles on hand, threw an undue proportion of the supply upon the European markets. Thus Great Britain alone has not only taken the whole excess of our receipts over those of last year, but nearly 100,000 bales more, that, with moderate prices, would have been consumed in the United States. To Great Britain, therefore, the crop has been equal to one of about 2,450,000 bales, while at the same time there has been a material increase in her imports from Brazil, Egypt, and the East Indies. And besides this ample present supply, large estimates of our coming crop are indulged, which have had a marked influence in the depression of prices. Thus, once more the spinners gained the ascendancy, and for weeks, panic, which loses sight of the laws of supply and demand, seemed to reign in the Liverpool market. It is gratifying, however, to observe, that notwithstanding the prevalence of comparatively high prices during a great portion of the first six months of the current year, the amount taken for consumption in Great Britain slightly exceeded the amount taken for the same purpose during a similar period last year; and by the last accounts the weekly average had reached 33,000 bales, the highest ratio of consumption yet attained in the history of the cotton manufacture. The following table exhibits the imports, delivery, stock, &c., in the whole of Great Britain, for the first six months, ended on the 30th June last, and a comparison with the same period in 1850:

COTTON AND SUGAR TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS AND THE SOUTH. 491

	1851.	1850.
Stock 1st January.....bales	521,130	558,390
Import six months.....	1,156,500	940,862
	1,677,630	1,499,252
Export six months.....	95,300	119,800
Consumption.....	776,130	770,952
	871,420	890,752
Stock 30th June.....	806,200	608,500
Weekly average taken for consumption.....	29,851	29,652

In France, also, and other European countries, the deliveries for consumption exceed those of last year, the United States being the only point where a decrease is shown.

In respect to the growing crop, which is now a matter of marked interest, we propose to sketch briefly its progress and present prospects, leaving to others the indulgence in estimates, which the past season, among many that have preceded it, has shown to be attended with very great uncertainty, and with very serious consequences. It is understood that there was considerable increase in the breadth of land planted, but an unusually cold and backward spring retarded the growth of the plant, and it had made comparatively little progress up to the early part of May, when a favorable change in the character of the weather gave an impulse to vegetation. From this time up to the first of July, the accounts from the country, with some exceptions, were favorable, though from the uplands there was some complaint of a lack of sufficient rain. The plant generally, however, though small, was said to look healthy, and to give good promise; besides which the crops were unusually "clean," the very lack of rain complained of having favored cultivation by preventing any excessive growth of grass and weeds. But now very serious complaints began to reach us from the uplands, of the long continuance of the drought; and as week succeeded week without any rain, except an occasional shower, in partial neighborhoods, these complaints were reiterated, and became more general, accompanied by representations that the very fair prospects which the crops presented up to about the first July, were blasted to an important extent, and that no subsequent combination of circumstances could fully recover them. For some weeks past, however, showers have been frequent, particularly in this immediate neighborhood, and in some parts of the interior heavy rains are reported, which, coming at so late a period, are said to have been rather prejudicial to the crops. The bottom lands are generally admitted to give excellent promise, but so many contingencies may yet arise, favorable or adverse, that calculation of the result would be mere conjecture. We make no estimates, but we will record it as our impression that, while the error of last year was an under-estimate of the crop, the error of the coming one is likely to be in the opposite direction.

With regard to the market prospects for the coming crop, we think they may be said to be fair, for ready sales, at moderate prices. In Great Britain, particularly, all the leading elements of an active and prosperous trade would seem to be in combination, viz—low stocks of goods, and of the raw material, in the hands of the manufacturers, cheap food, abundance of money, and the world at peace. Already the ratio of consumption is greater than ever before attained, and even a further increase is not improbable. In our own country, too, there will soon, doubtless, be renewed activity, as the stock of goods, which for a long time have been excessive, and much reduced, and the manufacturers are understood to be without any considerable stocks of the raw material. Altogether the prospects would seem to be favorable for fair returns to the planter, even with a large crop, and the chances are that the relation of consumption to supply will be such as to leave the leading markets without excessive stocks at the close of the season.

The first bale of the *new crop* was received here on the 25th July, being seventeen days earlier than the first receipt of last year, and the total receipts of new crop up to this date are 3,155 bales, against 67 bales last year. Of this quantity there have been sales reported to the extent of about 2,500 bales, at a range of 8 & 8½ cents for middling and 8½ & 9 cents for good middling to mid-

dling fair, and the market closes with a total stock, including all on shipboard not cleared, of 14,890 bales, of which about 11,000 bales are in factors' hands, embracing some 10,000 bales of old crop, held under limits.

Mixed Cotton.—We have, on former occasions, called the attention of planters to the existence of an evil which loudly calls for remedy. We refer to the culpable negligence of many whose duty it is to attend to the packing of cotton, as shown by the frequent discovery of *mixed bales*, viz. : bales that are found to contain two, three or more qualities and colors. This negligence often leads to vexatious reclamations, and sometimes to expensive lawsuits, as it generally happens that the discovery is not made until the cotton has reached the hands of the manufacturer, at a distant market. Then, if any portion of the bale is found to be inferior in quality to the sample by which it was purchased, the *whole bale* is reduced to the value of the *lowest grade found*, and the difference reclaimed. Nor is this all : for reclamations are sometimes insisted on even when the purchase has been made by a sample of the *lowest grade*, on the ground that mixed bales are *unmerchantable*. Thus the planter not only loses the difference in price between the lower and higher qualities which careless packing has mingled in the same bale, but is called upon to *pay that difference again*. And besides all this, when the irregular packing is once discovered, as it necessarily must be, somewhere and at some time, it throws discredit upon the planter's crop generally, and thus operates to his disadvantage. It sometimes happens that the discovery is made here, before sale, by drawing samples from different parts of the bale. When this is the case, the factor can seldom obtain more than the market value of the lowest sample. The evil which we have here depicted, and which is not only attended with direct loss to the planter, but is also productive of many vexatious controversies, is venial in its character, and only reprehensible for the confusion it introduces into a most important branch of trade, and one that can only be conducted with facility and economy upon the basis of good faith in the honesty and integrity of the planter. These virtues being accorded to him, he owes it to himself, to his factor, and to his purchaser, to exercise more care and vigilance over those who have his interest in charge.

Sugar.—At the date of our last annual report the prospect was considered fair for a full average yield, as the weather for some three months previous had been of a remarkably favorable character for promoting the growth of the cane. Subsequently, however, the character of the season proved unpropitious, an extraordinary period of drought having ensued, which prevented the cane from yielding juice freely, and also delayed the grinding, from the lack of water for working the steam engines. Thus the frost of the middle of November found an unusually large proportion of the crop exposed, and the two causes above noted, combined with damage from overflows, led to a material reduction in the expected product. According to the statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, the crop of 1850-51 amounted to 211,203 hogsheads, weighing 231,194,000 pounds. Of this quantity 184,372 hogsheads are stated to be brown sugar, made by the old process, and 26,831 hogsheads refined, clarified, &c., including cistern bottoms ; and the whole is the product of 1,495 sugar-houses, of which 907 have steam and 588 have horse-power. The falling off in the crop, as compared with that of the previous year, is 26,720 hogsheads, or 38,575,000 pounds.

The stock estimated to be on hand at the close of last year was 2,000 hogsheads, and this quantity being added to the crop, as above stated, makes a supply, in round numbers, of 213,000 hogsheads. As nearly as can be ascertained, the distribution of this supply has been as follows : shipments out of the state, by sea, (including an estimate of 10,000 hogsheads for the exports from Attakapas) 57,000 hogsheads ; consumption of the city and neighborhood 15,000 hogsheads ; taken for refining in the city and state, including cistern bottoms, 15,000 hogsheads ; stock now on hand in the state, estimated at 2,200 hogsheads, leaving as the quantity taken for the West 123,800 hogsheads. The quantity shipped to Atlantic ports is about 45,000 hogsheads, against 90,000 last year.

The first receipt of the new crop was two hogsheads on the 17th October ; one

week later than the first receipt of the previous year. The two hogsheads were of good grain, but of course were not well drained, and they were sold at 6 cents per lb. Subsequently supplies came forward slowly, and it was not until the latter part of the month that the business assumed any considerable importance. The course of the market will be best indicated by the following table, which shows the highest and the lowest point in each month for fair sugar on the levee.

	Highest.		Lowest
October.....	cents per lb...6 a6½	cents per lb...	5½a5½
November.....	"...5½a5½	"	4½a5
December.....	"...5 a5½	"	4½a5
January.....	"...5½a5½	"	4½a5
February.....	"...5 a5½	"	4½a5½
March.....	"...4½a5½	"	4½a5
April.....	"...5½a5½	"	4½a5½
May.....	"...5 a5½	"	5½a5½
June.....	"...5 a6	"	5½a5½
July.....	"...5½a6	"	5½a5½
August.....	"...6½a6½	"	5½a6

It will thus be seen that the market has not been subjected to any violent fluctuations throughout the season, but on the contrary that it has generally been characterized by great steadiness, while the average of prices has been considerably above that of last year. The transactions on plantations have to a great extent been on private terms, though we obtained particulars of the sales of quite a number of crops, as they occurred, and we find by our records that the ruling rates in January and February were 4½ a 5½; in March 4½ a 5½, in April 5 a 5½, in May 5½ a 5½, and in June, when nearly all had passed out of planters' hands, 5 7-16 a 5½ cents per lb. The deficiency in the Louisiana crop has led to increased imports of foreign sugars, and thus we have from Cuba 451 hhds. and 29,293 boxes, against 397 hhds. and 18,843 boxes last year. We have also an import from Brazil of 1,354 boxes of 1,800 pounds each; the first ever received at this port, but to be followed, we understand, by several other cargoes. Besides the Louisiana crop there were produced last year in Texas about 6,000 and in Florida about 1,500 hhds.

With respect to the growing crop, we have but a few remarks to offer, it being too early in the season to arrive at anything definite regarding its probable extent. It is understood that the severe frosts of November last, cut short the supply of plant cane, and thus somewhat circumscribed the cultivation, while the cold spring, and the subsequent long drought, were unfavorable to the progress of the plant, particularly in the upper parishes. Within the past few weeks, however, frequent showers of rain have fallen, and the crops in most sections are said to present a marked improvement. The result, however, cannot be determined for many weeks to come, and we shall close these remarks by referring to the annexed table, which gives the product of each year since 1829.

Crop of 1850, 911,203 hhds.	Crop of 1839, 115,000 hhds.
" 1849, 247,923 "	" 1838, 70,000 "
" 1848, 220,000 "	" 1837, 63,000 "
" 1847, 240,000 "	" 1836, 70,000 "
" 1846, 140,000 "	" 1835, 30,000 "
" 1845, 186,650 "	" 1834, 106,000 "
" 1844, 200,000 "	" 1833, 75,000 "
" 1843, 100,000 "	" 1832, 70,000 "
" 1842, 140,000 "	" 1831, 42,000 "
" 1841, 90,000 "	" 1830, 82,000 "
" 1840, 27,000 "	"

From the best available data it would appear that, (estimating the product of maple sugar at 50 millions pounds,) the present consumption of the United States is about 550 millions of pounds—equal to 25 pounds for each individual of our population. Of this quantity Louisiana and Texas, with their present extent of cultivation and an average product, can furnish fully 300 millions

pounds. Besides the sugar, there were imported into the United States, in 1849-50, from foreign countries, 25 millions gallons molasses, and the product of Louisiana for the same season was 12 millions gallons.

NOTE.—For several years past we have been politely furnished by the Collector of Customs at Franklin, in this state, with statements of the exports of sugar and molasses from Attakapas, showing the total quantity, and the quantity to each port, which we accordingly added to our export table, the same as if the shipments had been made from our own port. About six months since, not having received our statements as usual, we addressed a letter to R. W. McMillan, Esq., collector, requesting him to forward a statement up to date. After about a month's delay, we received a letter from [D. Dwight, Esq., stating that the collectorship had passed into his hands, and enclosing a rough statement, in total, of the exports to the 1st March. This did not answer our purpose, and we at once applied for particulars. These we have never been able to obtain, though frequently written for, owing to the illness of the collector; and the last reply we had, a few weeks since, was that the collector had gone to the North, and the office was closed. We therefore estimate the shipments out of the state at 10,000 hhds. sugar and 12,000 barrels molasses, which amounts should be added to the totals in our export tables. As the figures now stand they do not present the true comparisons with other years, but this, as we have shown, was unavoidable.

Molasses.—According to the statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, the product of molasses from the last cane crop, estimating 50 gallons for every 1000 pounds of sugar, was 10,500,000 gallons, or 1,500,000 gallons less than the product of the previous year. This deficient supply has been productive of a higher average of prices than has been attained for several years past, as will be seen by the following table, which exhibits the highest and lowest point in each month, for sales on the levee, in barrels:

	Highest.	Lowest.
October.....	cents per gal. .33 a33	..26½ a27
November.....	" ..27 a28	" ..24 a24½
December.....	" ..24½ a24½	" ..23 a24
January.....	" ..20 a24½	" ..18 a23½
February.....	" ..23 a27½	" ..18 a24
March.....	" ..25 a30	" ..23 a27½
April.....	" ..25 a33	" ..22 a30½
May.....	" ..26 a35	" ..25 a32
June.....	" ..25 a32	" ..25 a30
July.....	" ..22 a30	" ..20 a28
August.....	" ..22 a32	" ..22 a30

About the middle of December the market opened with a good demand for crops on plantation, at 20 a 21 cents, and during the subsequent few weeks large sales were effected at this range, though mostly at 20½ cents per gallon. The highest sales of the season, according to our records, were in February and March, when some few crops were disposed of at 23 a 23½ cents per gallon. It being found about this time that the Louisiana crop was nearly exhausted, orders for cargoes were sent to Cuba, and they began to arrive early in April. Up to this date the imports are equal to about 1,200,000 gallons, most of which has been taken for refining purposes. Of the crop of 10,500,000 gals. there have been shipped to Atlantic ports (estimating the exports from Attakapas at 12,000 barrels) about 2,000,000 gallons, against 4,500,000 gallons last year; leaving 8,500,000 as the quantity taken for the consumption of the South and West. The receipts on the levee, from the interior, have been 184,483 barrels, against 189,813 barrels last year.

2.—COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS FOR THE YEAR 1850-51.

In pursuance of our custom, regularly observed since the establishment of this Review, we furnish the statistics of New-Orleans Commerce, for the year ending on the 1st of September last, being indebted for them to the annual sheet of the Prices Current. They are invaluable for preservation in the shape we are in the habit of giving them, as well for future reference as present use. We shall continue the subject in our next number.

The value of products received from the interior since 1st September, 1850, is 106,924,083, against \$96,897,873 last year. The value of the exports of domestic products, for the year ended 30th June last, according to the custom-house records, was \$81,216,925, against \$71,049,556 last year. Of this amount, 53,988,013 was to foreign ports, and \$27,228,912 coastwise. The value of foreign merchandise exported during the same period was only \$445,950. The operations of the Branch Mint have been greatly extended, the total deposits of gold and silver, for the year ended on the 31st July, being \$9,107,722, against

\$4,038,341 last year. Of the gold, \$8,152,878 was from California. The coinage in the same time has been, of gold \$8,994,000, and of silver \$1,050,500—total, \$10,044,500.

The arrivals at New-Orleans, for the last five years, have stood—

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Steam Ships.	Total.	St. Denis.
1846-7	764	451	603	989	109	2981	3022
1847-8	955	509	462	795	206	2927	2977
1848-9	757	462	375	456	136	2186	2873
1849-50	654	363	362	666	147	2192	2784
1850-51	615	320	315	704	190	2144	2918

A gradual decline will be observed in almost every description of vessel. The flat boat arrivals during 1850-51, were 1,261; also a decline, as will be seen by our previous volumes.

Comparative Arrivals, Exports and Stocks of Cotton and Tobacco at New-Orleans, for ten years, from 1st Sept. each year to date.

Years.	COTTON—BALES.			TOBACCO—HHDs.		
	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.	Arr'ls.	Exports.	Stocks.
1850-'51	995,036	997,458	15,390	64,030	54,501	23,871
1849-'50	837,723	838,591	16,612	60,304	57,955	14,842
1848-'49	1,142,382	1,167,303	15,480	52,335	52,896	13,293
1847-'48	1,213,805	1,201,897	37,401	55,882	60,364	14,851
1846-'47	740,669	724,508	23,493	55,588	50,376	22,336
1845-'46	1,053,633	1,054,857	6,332	72,896	62,045	17,924
1844-'45	979,238	984,616	7,356	71,493	68,679	7,673
1843-'44	910,854	895,375	12,934	82,435	81,249	4,859
1842-'43	1,089,642	1,088,570	4,700	92,509	69,891	4,873
1841-'42	740,155	749,267	4,428	67,555	68,058	2,953

Comparative prices of Middling to Fair Cotton at New-Orleans, on the first of each month, during a period of five years—together with the total receipts at New-Orleans and the total crops of the United States.

	1850-51.	1849-50.	1848-49.	1847-48.	1846-47.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September	9 a 11	9 a 11	5 a —	10 a 12	7 a 9
October	12 a 13	9 a 12	5 a 7	10 a 11	8 a 10
November	13 a 14	9 a 11	5 a 6	7 a 8	9 a 10
December	13 a 14	10 a 11	5 a 6	6 a 7	9 a 10
January	12 a 14	10 a 11	5 a 6	6 a 7	10 a 11
February	12 a 13	11 a 12	6 a 7	6 a 8	11 a 13
March	10 a 13	10 a 12	6 a 7	6 a 7	9 a 11
April	10 a 12	10 a 12	6 a 7	6 a 7	10 a 11
May	9 a 11	11 a 13	6 a 7	5 a 6	10 a 12
June	8 a 11	11 a 13	7 a 8	5 a 7	9 a 11
July	8 a 10	11 a 13	7 a 8	5 a 7	9 a 10
August	7 a 9	12 a 13	9 a —	5 a 7	10 a 12
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Rec'ts N. O.	1,053,633	797,387	1,100,636	1,188,733	707,324
Crop of U. S.	2,350,537	2,096,706	2,700,000	2,350,000	1,800,000

Comparative Prices of Sugar on the Levee, on the first of each month, for Five Years.

	1850-'51.	1849-'50.	1848-'49.	1847-'48.	1846-'47.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
Sept.	4 a 6	3 a 5	2 a 4	5 a 7	4 a 7
Oct.	4 a 6	4 a 6	2 a 4	5 a 7	6 a 9
Nov.	5 a 6	3 a 6	3 a 4	3 a 5	5 a 7
Dec.	3 a 5	3 a 6	2 a 4	2 a 5	4 a 7
Jan.	3 a 6	2 a 5	2 a 4	2 a 5	5 a 7
Feb.	3 a 6	2 a 5	2 a 5	2 a 5	5 a 7
March	3 a 6	2 a 5	2 a 5	2 a 5	5 a 7
April	3 a 6	2 a 5	2 a 5	2 a 5	5 a 7
May	3 a 6	2 a 5	2 a 5	1 a 4	5 a 7
June	3 a 6	3 a 5	2 a 5	1 a 4	5 a 7
July	3 a 6	4 a 6	2 a 4	2 a 4	5 a 7
August	4 a 6	4 a 6	3 a 5	2 a 4	5 a 8

Comparative Prices of Molasses on the Levee, on the first of each month, for Five Years.

	1850-'51. Cents.	1849-'50. Cents.	1848-49. Cents.	1847-48. Cents.	1846-47. Cents.
September.....	30 a 32	10 a 20	15 a 20	28 a 32	15 a 22
October.....	30 a 32	10 a 20	17 a 21	28 a 32	20 a 25
November.....	23 a 25	24 a 24	23 a 24	22 a 23	26 a 26
December.....	23 a 24	20 a 20	19 a 20	19 a 19	23 a 23
January.....	18 a 24	17 a 19	18 a 19	17 a 17	24 a 25
February.....	23 a 27	15 a 20	20 a 21	17 a 19	27 a —
March.....	22 a 30	12 a 21	15 a 19	15 a 21	29 a 29
April.....	23 a 33	10 a 21	15 a 19	15 a 21	25 a 29
May.....	23 a 32	10 a 23	12 a 18	12 a 16	26 a 30
June.....	23 a 30	21 a 27	12 a 18	13 a 20	26 a 30
July.....	22 a 30	25 a 33	8 a 18	15 a 20	26 a 30
August.....	20 a 28	20 a 33	10 a 20	15 a 20	28 a 31

VALUE OF PRODUCE OF THE INTERIOR.

A Table, showing the receipts of the principal articles from the interior, during the year ending 31st August, 1851, with their estimated average and total value.

ARTICLES.	Amount.	Average.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Amount.	Average.	Value.
Apples.....bbls.	54808.	\$3 00.	\$174424	Lead, White.....kegs.	1930.	7 00.	13510
Bacon, as'd, hds & cks.	48602.	60 00.	2916120	Molasses, (est'd) p/gls.	10500000.	25.	2625000
Bacon, asso'd, boxes.	9274.	30 00.	278220	Oats.....bbls & sks.	479741.	1 00.	479741
Bacon Hams, hds & ts.	44478.	60 00.	2668680	Onions.....bbls.	14279.	2 00.	28558
Bacon, in bulk.....pd.	235000.	7.	16450	Oil, Linseed.....bbls.	178.	35 00.	6230
Bugging.....pieces.	72304.	12 50.	903800	Oil, Castor.....bbls.	4145.	50 00.	207250
Bale Rope.....coils.	107324.	7 50.	804180	Oil, Lard.....bbls.	17157.	26 00.	446082
Beans.....bbls.	4236.	5 00.	21180	Potatoes.....bbls.	162922.	2 00.	325844
Butter, kegs & firkins.	54867.	5 00.	274325	Pork.....bbls.	286084.	13 00.	3433008
Butter.....bbls.	2720.	25 00.	68000	Pork.....boxes.	1980.	25 00.	49500
Beeswax.....bbls.	230.	45 00.	10350	Pork.....hhds.	1231.	60 00.	73800
Beef.....bbls.	36164.	10 00.	361640	Pork, in bulk.....pds.	10513895.	5.	578264
Beef.....tierces.	11902.	15 00.	178500	Porter and Ale.....bbls.	384.	10 00.	3840
Beef, dried.....pounds.	15390.	7.	1071	Packing Yarn.....reels.	4190.	7 00.	29350
Buffalo Robes.....pks.	155.	70 00.	10850	Skins, Deer.....packs.	1119.	25 00.	27975
Cotton.....bales	995036.	49 00.	48756764	Skins, Bear.....packs.	7.	15 00.	105
Corn Meal.....bbls.	3662.	3 00.	10986	Shot.....kegs.	2044.	25 00.	51100
Corn, in ear.....bbls.	42526.	90.	38273	Soap.....boxes.	9424.	3 00.	28432
Corn, Shelled.....sacks.	1298933.	1 30.	1688608	Slaves.....M.	9000.	35 00.	315000
Cheese.....boxes.	78894.	3 50.	276129	Sugar, (est'd) crp) hds.	211303.	60 00.	1267818
Candles.....boxes.	80745.	6 00.	484458	Spanish Moss.....bales.	5974.	6 00.	35844
Cider.....bbls.	243.	3 00.	735	Tallow.....bbls.	6164.	24 00.	147936
Coal, Western.....bbls.	700000.	50.	350000	Tobacco, Leaf.....hds.	52830.	120 00.	6327600
D'd App's & pea's " "	6853.	3 00.	20559	Tobacco, Strips.....hds.	9100.	150 00.	1365000
Feathers.....bags.	3645.	35 00.	127575	Tobacco, St.ms.....hds.	2200.	20 00.	44000
Flaxseed.....tierces.	294.	12 00.	3448	Tobacco, Chewing.....kegs and boxes....	4115.	30 00.	123450
Flour.....bbls.	941106.	4 50.	4234977	Twine, bund's & bxs.	3156.	10 00.	31560
Furs, hds, hds & bxs.	1289.	800000	Vinegar.....bbls.	89.	6 00.	534
Hemp.....bales.	25116.	18 00.	452088	Whiskey.....bbls.	157741.	8 00.	1261928
Hides.....bbls.	140338.	1 00.	140338	Window Glass.....bxs.	16428.	5 00.	82140
Hay.....bales.	46591.	3 00.	144843	Wheat.....bbls & sks.	88797.	2 00.	177594
Iron, pig.....tons.	152.	25 00.	3800	Other various articles—estimated at	5090000		
Lard.....bbls and tea.	115570.	24 00.	2773680				
Lard.....kegs.	151931.	4 00.	607724				
Leather.....bundles.	8490.	25 00.	212250				
Lime, Western.....bbls.	37738.	1 50.	56607				
Lead.....pigs.	325505.	3 20.	1041616				
Lead, bar, kgs & bxs.	629.	20 00.	12580				
				Total value.....dollars	10692483		
				Total in 1849-50.....	90897873		
				Total in 1848-49.....	81986692		
				Total in 1847-48.....	70779151		

3.—THE FIRST STEAMBOAT ON THE OHIO RIVER.

MR. EDITOR: As there are many erroneous opinions extant concerning the first steamboat built on the Western waters, the undersigned would like you to publish their evidence in the matter.

In the fall of 1811, we were both present at the launching of the first steamer built on the Ohio river, and on board of her. She was built at the Pipetown ship-yard, at Pittsburg; was intended for the Pittsburg and New-Orleans trade, and called the "Orleans." She was built after the fashion of a ship, with port-holes in the side—long bowsprit—painted a sky blue. Her cabin was in the hold.

She left in November of this year, (1811) for New-Orleans, and made the trip down in safety, but was never able to get back over the Falls, her power being insufficient to propel her against a strong current.—She continued to run below the Falls for some time. Many persons are of the opinion that the ENTERPRISE was the first boat built for the above trade.—Such is not the fact. The Enterprise was the fourth or fifth boat built. The names of the others were the *Ætna* and *Vesuvius*, built by a company who had a charter for 14 years, renewable, for the sole navigation, by steam, of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.—The Enterprise was built at Brownsville by a private company, and on her arrival at New-Orleans was attached for an infringement of the chartered rights of the company. A legal investigation followed, and the owners of the Enterprise gained the suit by proving that the plaintiffs had violated their charter. Thus ended the steamboat monopoly on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.

J. WINTON,
WM. McGRANAGHAN.

4.—FREE BANKING IN VIRGINIA.

We have made record of various bills passed by the Legislature of Virginia, at its late session, establishing independent banks upon the basis of state stocks. The following are the principal features of acts establishing such banks :

- 1.—A deposit with the treasurer of state stock, originally or guaranteed, for improvement companies, to the amount of the charter.
- 2.—The executing and delivery of the notes for circulation, countersigned by the treasurer, at the expense of the bank.
- 3.—An obligation to pay the same bonus, and to keep on hand the same proportion of specie as other banks.
4. Making the stockholders personally liable for the circulation, each stockholder to an amount equal to the stock held by him, for the express contracts of the bank.

One of the reasons operating with the Legislature, which prevented the passage of a general free banking law for Virginia, at the late session of the Legislature, was the fact that the charters of the present banks do not expire till 1857, and the state being to some extent interested in them as stockholders, the Legislature preferred making an experiment to ascertain how the new system will work ; but the indications are very strong that no charter on the old principle will hereafter be obtained.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—COTTON PLANTERS' CONVENTION.

STATISTICS OF PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF THE COTTON PLANT, AND HOW THE PLANTERS SHOULD COMBINE IN THEIR OWN DEFENCE.

As requested, we cheerfully publish the able address of the Committee of Florida Cotton Planters. We agree entirely as to the importance of a Convention of the Planters of the South, and have always advocated such a convention. It would effect much good in many ways, though we are not yet prepared to say how far the plan we now publish may be practicable or achieve the desired results. We leave the subject for the present, but shall resume it from time to time.

At a meeting of Planters, convened at the Court-House in the city of Tallahassee, Col. Robert Butler was called to the Chair, and, after a brief explanation of the objects of the meeting, Col. John Parkhill, and Dr. G. W. Holland, were appointed Vice-Presidents, and B. F. Allen requested to act as Secretary.

On motion, a committee of five, consisting of James E. Broome, Edward Houstoun, T. K. Leonard, Richard Hayward and George Whitfield, were appointed by the Chair, to present business to the meeting.

The committee retired for a few moments, and through their chairman, James E. Broome, submitted to the meeting the following report and resolutions:

Your Committee have had under consideration the subject of a Cotton Planters' Convention, and beg leave to submit the following report:

There is, perhaps, no interest in the world surrounded with so many difficulties or subject to so many disasters, as the cotton-planting interest. The great irregularity in the production, caused by the seasons, and the appearance or non-appearance of numerous enemies peculiar to this plant, produces fluctuations in the price, such as appear to visit no other great interest. Whether these fluctuations are necessarily incident to the production and sale of this staple, appears to be a question which has, as yet, engaged a very small share of the planter's attention. How far the difficulties which surround us are attributable to over-production, or to irregular production; or how far they result from making our controlling markets too far from our own gin-houses; or how far a remedy for our evils might be supplied by a judicious concert of action among cotton planters, are all questions in which we seem to feel but little concern. These, and many others connected with this subject, might, as your committee believe, be investigated with great benefit; and such a labor would be peculiarly appropriate to a Cotton Planters' Convention.

Having met for the purpose of considering the expediency of calling on our cotton-planting brethren to meet us in convention, it is perhaps proper that your committee should present the reasons which induce them to advocate such a call. These will require, to some extent, an examination of the causes of our difficulties and the possibility of applying a remedy. In this examination, the first question which presents itself for our consideration, is the question of over-production.

The depressions in price to which we are forced so often to submit, are attributed, generally, to over-production. To ascertain whether this has been the cause, aggregates must be looked to, and not the relative production and consumption of any single year. For the purpose of testing this matter, your committee have gone back as far as the year 1825, and find that up to the year 1850, the production has not exceeded the consumption. On this subject, they present the following table, in which is shown the average annual production and annual average consumption of the world, for each period of five years, from 1825 to 1850:

	Production.		Consumption.
Average from 1825 to 1830	1,231,000 bales per an.	1,187,000 bales per an.
" 1830 to 1835	1,450,000	"	1,540,000
" 1835 to 1840	1,919,000	"	1,943,000
" 1840 to 1845	2,561,000	"	2,414,000
" 1845 to 1850	2,791,000	"	2,869,000
	9,952,000		9,953,000

These results, multiplied by five, will show that the whole production in twenty-five years, has been 49,760,000 bales, and that the consumption in the same time, has been 49,765,000 bales, or an excess over the production of 5,000 bales, or 200 bales per annum. How much greater the consumption would have been had the raw material been furnished in increased quantity, your committee will not conjecture. Enough is shown by the facts to establish an important point: that the extent of consumption up to this time, has been controlled by the extent of production, and we must, therefore, look to other causes for the ruinous depressions in price, to which we have so often submitted.

The second point requiring investigation, is the capacity of the world for over-production. To this, your committee concede there cannot be a definite answer given; they incline, however, strongly to the opinion, that, at fair prices, and with proper organization on the part of the American cotton planters, the capacity for over-production does not, and never can exist.

The extraordinary increase in the production of the world in five years, from 1840 to 1845, averaging 642,000 bales per annum, caused a regular increase in the stock of raw material left on hand in Europe at the close of each year, until, on the 31st of December, 1845, it had reached 1,221,000 bales, estimated as suf-

ficient for twenty-six weeks' consumption. The average increased production in the United States for the next four years, (embracing the crops of 1845 and 1848) was 117,000 bales per annum; and yet on the 31st of December, 1849, the stock on hand in Europe was reduced to 646,000 bales, estimated as sufficient for only thirteen weeks' consumption. The crops of 1849 and 1850, not equaling the average consumption of the last five years, it may be safely asserted that the consumption is now being limited and curtailed by a short supply of the raw material. To sustain this view of the case, we make an extract from a document read in 1850, by one of the Secretaries of the Board of Trade, before the British Association at Edinburgh. "Great Britain now is, and for many years has been, dependent not at all upon the good-will of the citizens of the U. States to sell their produce to us, but very much upon the influence of seasons, for the means of setting to work that large proportion of its population which depends upon the cotton manufacture for the feeding of themselves and their families. In the present condition of our cotton trade, any serious falling off in the amount of the cotton crop in the United States, necessarily abridges the means of laboring among our Lancashire and Lanarkshire spinners and weavers. Such a falling off is, in any year, likely to occur. We have felt its influence twice within the last few years, are at this time suffering under it, and are threatened with another adverse season, the effect of which must be to deprive of employment a large proportion of those spinners and weavers whose labor is bestowed on the preparation of coarse goods." * * * "Our supply of cotton has hitherto been drawn in very fluctuating proportions from British India, Brazil, Egypt, our West India Colonies, and the United States of America. From this last named country, the quantities were, for a long series of years, in a continual condition of increase. From Brazil, our importations have sensibly lessened, without any reasonable prospect of future increase. From Egypt, the quantities fluctuate violently, and depend greatly upon causes not falling within ordinary commercial considerations. In the British West Indies, the cultivation of cotton has for some time ceased to form a regular branch of industry, and it is hardly to be expected that, having thus ceased to be profitable when prices in Europe were uniformly at a higher level than they have been now for a long series of years, the culture to any important extent will be resumed in these Colonies. From British India, the quantities received depend upon a different set of circumstances, but of such a nature as to forbid any very sanguine hope of great and permanent increase in the shipments." After continuing the argument at some length, attention is called to the immense increased consumption of their cotton mills, showing that in 1800, they consumed 56,010,732 lbs., and in 1849, 775,468,003 lbs., and remark: "It is by no means improbable that the consumption during the last nine years would have gone forward at a constantly accelerated pace, so that it would by this time have gone beyond 1,000,000,000 pounds in the year, but for the check given to it in 1847, and in the present year, through insufficiency in the supply of the raw material." * * * "This increase has been concurrent with, and mainly caused by, a continual reduction in the price of cotton." * * * "On the other hand, the continual fall in the price has acted as a stimulus on the producers, (American,) who have hitherto made up, in general, by the extent of their cultivation, for the diminished price of their crops." Thus it is seen that increased supplies are greatly wanted, but their experience is, that the surest means of stimulating production in the United States, is to reduce the price. Your committee might furnish many authorities to show, that in Great Britain, the great head of manufacturing industry, the idea that markets may not be found for all the cotton goods she can procure the raw material to produce, has long since been abandoned. Even the government is alarmed at the prospect of their industry being seriously checked, not for the want of customers, but for the want of cotton. The most powerful efforts have been made, and are still being made, to stimulate the production of cotton in every country where there is hope of success. How far they have succeeded may be inferred from the fact, that in five years preceding 1850, the production in India and Brazil declined sixteen per cent., and in the same time the supplies of Surat and Madras declined twenty-four per cent. Thus, it will be seen, that notwithstanding the extraordinary efforts made to stimulate

production in every quarter, the United States is the only country that has continued to furnish increased supplies. But the character of our increase for the last twenty years, must give small consolation to those who apprehend difficulties from a short supply of raw cotton. Our per cent. increase has been regularly and rapidly diminishing, as is shown from the following table, the data of which we take from Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, a work of high commercial character:

	Total.	Per annum.
Increased per cent. in 20 years.....	177.....	or 8 85-100
“ “ 15 “	119.....	or 7 66-000
“ “ 10 “	58.....	or 5 96-000
“ “ 5 “	15.....	or 3

Thus it is seen that the per cent. increase in American cotton has been rapidly declining, until we are now down to three per cent. per annum. Not so, however, with American consumption—that is increased in the same time, more than nine per cent. per annum. The per cent. increased production in the world, for the last five years, is down to an average of 1 80-100 per annum; while the per cent. increase in consumption has been 3 80-100 per annum; and leaving out England, France, and the United States, the increase in the balance of the world has been 46 per cent., or more than nine per cent. per annum. This state of things cannot continue; the rate of production must be increased, or the rate of consumption diminished—the equilibrium will be found.

These calculations show, that the area for the consumption of cotton goods is enlarging—that the vast and yet unsupplied population of the earth are rapidly maturing a competition, which, without greatly augmented supplies of the raw material, will, at no distant day, be seriously felt by the manufacturers and consumers of England, France, and the United States. The commerce of every civilized nation is opening new markets, and enlarging old ones for our benefit. To what extent now markets already found have been supplied, compared with their wants, or how many others are yet to be opened and supplied, your committee have no means of ascertaining; but an inference may be drawn from the fact, that the largest five years' average production the world has yet furnished, is 2,791,000 bales per annum. That of these, England, France, and the United States require for their consumption, from 2,000,000 to 2,200,000 bales; leaving not more than one-fourth of the annual product to supply the balance of the world, with a population, probably ten times as large as their own. Under such circumstances, it may reasonably be supposed, that with fair average prices, markets will be found for all the cotton which we now have, or ever will have, the ability to produce.

Having now shown that there has been no over-production, in the aggregate, and that there is no reasonable probability that there ever will be, your committee will attempt to show the effects of irregular production on prices and consumption. Here, your committee believe, may be found the source of nearly all the fluctuations to which this great interest has been subjected. To illustrate the effects of irregular production, three simple suppositions will be used, remarking that extreme cases are selected, and a single year used to establish a principle where, in practice, several may be required. Suppose that the crop of 1851 should be 3,000,000 bales—that to manufacture these, \$300,000,000 of capital must be invested, and 3,000,000 operatives employed—suppose the capital and operatives furnished, the crop manufactured, sold, and consumed. Then suppose the year 1852 yields only 2,000,000 bales; to manufacture these, only two-thirds of this capital and two-thirds of these operatives are necessary. What is to become of the other one-third of each? To retain their position, short-time is resorted to, and this, it is found, starves the operatives and destroys the dividend on the capital. Then fine numbers only are spun; these are found to be unsaleable, and give an unhealthy character to the manufacturing business. These palliatives fail, as they always must, and the equilibrium is restored by driving out one-third of the capital and labor, to seek employment in other pursuits, promising more stability.

Then suppose the year 1853 furnishes another crop of 3,000,000 bales. What

is to be done with it? The capital remaining is only sufficient to manufacture 2,000,000, and without manufacturing, it cannot be consumed. The result is inevitable—the crop sells for a trifle, and, at the close of the year, there is a surplus of 1,000,000 bales in excess of the usual supply, and this, perhaps, to be increased by a good crop in 1854.

Under such circumstances, speculators seeing no prospect of improvement, withdraw from the market—the manufacturer is left without competition, and fixes the prices to suit himself—the planter becomes discouraged, and forces his cotton off at anything that is offered—unites in the general cry, that the production is immeasurably in advance of the consumption—vies with the manufacturer in fixing the impression and making it universal, that large supplies and low prices are inevitable for all time to come. This impression being fixed, capital flows in rapidly, new factories go up in all directions, old ones are enlarged and improved, trade in Manchester becomes healthy, new and extensive markets are found for the consumption of cotton goods, and in a few years, to the utter astonishment of all the world, it is found that the picture has been reversed—that an unprecedented increase in the consumption has taken place—the surplus is all gone—prices move upward—a short crop is made, and capital is again driven out, to be invited back, by the same process, after another long period of depression in prices.

These, your committee believe, are the natural results of irregular production; and were it possible to obtain such concert of action among planters as would reduce the annual crop one-half, the same principles would govern, and the same results be obtained ultimately.

If it be true, as your committee have supposed, and as a careful examination of the production, consumption and stock remaining on hand for 25 years past, they think will abundantly show, that our difficulties have not been attributable to over-production, but to irregular production, then is it not important that we should apply the remedy, if there is one? Irregular production, it is conceded, cannot be prevented, but your committee think that organized concert of action will control its effects. By way of illustration, suppose that the year 1851 yields 3,000,000 bales, and that it is definitely ascertained that the capital employed is only sufficient to manufacture 2,500,000 of these; now, in the ordinary course of trade, the effects of irregular production would be shown by great depression in price. But suppose the planters refuse to send the crop forward to any greater extent than is actually sufficient to supply the demand for consumption, and retain under their own sheds the other 500,000 bales; such a course would secure them fair prices for the amount sold, and control the natural effects of irregular production for that year. Then suppose the year 1852 furnishes only 2,000,000 bales; the ordinary effect of this, as has been shown, would be to drive capital out of the manufacturing business, and lay the foundation for subsequent low prices. This would be controlled, by adding the 500,000 bales retained from the crop of 1851, supplying the manufacturer's demand, securing good prices for both crops, and preventing the derangement which would have resulted from a withdrawal of manufacturing capital. Thus the principle might be run through any number of years, and admitting that there is no aggregate over-production, every crop would bring a fair price, because offered only in quantities sufficient to supply the demand. Such a system as this would protect us against the consequences of irregular production, but it can never be carried into effect by individual action. There are no means of procuring the necessary concert, to say nothing of other insuperable obstacles.

If we would do anything certainly and effectively, we must organize a Cotton Planters' Association. This should be chartered by the states of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, and Florida, with a capital of at least \$20,000,000, to be increased in amount, as the wants of the business might require. The Association should erect or purchase extensive warehouses in Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, New-Orleans, Appalachicola, and St. Marks, and establish at each of these points a regular commission business, with a view to the storage and sale of the entire crop of the United States.

For the purpose of securing to themselves the whole cotton commission business, they should establish a minimum price, which, for the purposes of this argu-

ment, we will fix at 10 to 12½ cents, according to quality and location, and averaging, say 11 cents per pound. This should be guaranteed to all their regular customers, and to all parties holding cotton purchased of them, so long as the said cotton remained in their warehouses. The world should have notice that, whenever the cotton offering was not wanted by others, at or above the minimum fixed, it would be wanted by the Association; that, when once purchased, it would never be re-sold, until taken at cost, adding storage, insurance, interest on the investment, with a commission for purchasing, and another for selling. This accumulation of charges would induce the manufacturers to take their supplies before the company would be required to take any; nor is it, indeed, likely that they would ever be purchasers to any large extent. Under such a system, the planter would not crowd the market with cotton, as is now the case, and speculators at the minimum price would purchase freely, and hold with confidence.

Another inducement for such an organization may be found in its capacity for increasing the consumption, provided the raw material is furnished. The bagging and rope necessary for packing a crop of 2,500,000 bales, would require about 50,000,000 pounds, or about 100,000 bales, of the most inferior part of the crop. This would be 4 per cent. of the entire yield. To insure this large increase in the consumption of the United States, it would only be necessary to erect the machinery for manufacturing these articles—sell them at a trifle above the cost of production, and discriminate in the minimum price fixed, to such extent as might be found necessary, against cotton packed in any other material. This would insure the packing of the entire crop in our own staple, and provide for the employment of a considerable amount of labor in manufacturing the bagging and rope necessary. But this is not the only increase to be effected in the consumption; the guarantee which the manufacturer everywhere would have, incidentally, that his goods, when made, could never be brought into competition with goods made from cotton at lower prices than his own, would induce the production of a larger proportion of coarse numbers—feeling that there could be no risk in stocking himself heavily, spindles would not be stopped or short-time resorted to, because orders were not in hand for work ahead—the manufacturing business would be characterized by greater regularity, and conducted with greater confidence—the supplies of goods would be better and the consumption larger. Another inducement for such an organization is the great saving of expense in getting our cotton into the hands of the manufacturer.

The Liverpool market governs the American market; and it matters not where the planter sells his cotton, he sells in reference to what is the supposed net value in Liverpool; and the difference between the price in our own sea-ports and the price in Liverpool, is the measure of charges and expenses paid by deductions from the price of the crop when sold. Taking the period of ten years, from 1840 to 1850, it is found that the average price in Liverpool was 2 95-100 cents per pound higher than the average during the same time in the sea-ports of the United States. Taking this as a measure of charges and expenses, and estimating our production for the next ten years at 2,500,000 bales, of 500 lbs. each, and the expenses may be stated thus:

1,250,000,000 lbs. at 2 95-100 cents per lb.....	\$36,875,000
Add storage in American sea-ports averaging 3 months, at 50 cents per bale on 2,500,000.....	1,250,000
Drayage on do. at 10.....	250,000
Mending do. at 5.....	125,000
Brokerage, extra labor, &c., at 15.....	365,000
Commission on sales at \$55 per bale at 2½ per cent.....	3,437,500
	<hr/>
	5,437,500
	<hr/>
	\$42,312,500

Thus it is shown that, exclusive of charges in interior towns, the expenses paid by the planter on a crop of the size supposed would be over \$42,000,000, or nearly \$17 per bale, and this too, so far as the larger item is concerned, on a range of prices of only 7 cents and 7 mills in the American ports.

How far these expenses may be reduced by concentrating our business in our own ports, and bringing the manufacturer to our own warehouses for his supplies,

and thus dispensing with intermediate markets, and intermediate agents, may be seen by reference to the following table :

Total charges now paid on 1,250,000 lbs.....	\$12,312,500
Deduct for necessary charges, as follows:	
For charges in Southern sea-ports, as per above table.....	5,437,500
For freight from Southern ports to manufacturers' receiving ports, on 1,250,000,000 lbs., at $\frac{1}{2}$ c.....	9,375,000
Marine insurance on do. at \$60 per bale at 1 per cent.....	1,500,000
Small incidental charges at 40 cents per bale.....	1,000,000
	<hr/>
	17,312,500
	<hr/>
	\$25,000,000

Leaving a balance of \$25,000,000, which, if these estimates are correct, must constitute an unnecessary charge on the cotton planter, and might be saved by transacting our business with the manufacturer at our own warehouses. That the organization of such an association as your committee have suggested, would effect such a revolution in the cotton trade, they think may be shown. So long as the cotton remains in their warehouses, it would be under a guarantee that it should bring a certain and fair price; the benefit of this would be lost as soon as it was removed. Under such circumstances, who would ship it? Would the planter or speculator remove a bale? what would be the inducement? Such removal would not only forfeit the guarantee, but render it certain that the cotton must reach the manufacturer with an accumulation of unnecessary charges, by which the net price would be reduced. With strong inducements, therefore, for its remaining, and a certainty of loss on its removal, scarcely a bale would go except to the manufacturer's order. Effect such a revolution, and Liverpool would no longer be the great cotton market of the world, and govern prices for us—our own Southern ports would become the manufacturer's market—our own merchants would be their purchasing agents—we should learn to do our own business, keep our means at home, and this would bring the commerce of all nations to our ports—the gold and produce of all would be brought to our cities to exchange for our cotton. We should become the great importing as well as exporting section of the country. Business would invite capital and population—our property would be greatly enhanced in value—we should be independent of all sections and countries, while all would be made tributary to us. In conclusion, your committee will ask, can the necessary capital be raised? Why not? Eight dollars per bale on the production of a single year would be sufficient, while they have attempted to show that ten dollars per bale, per annum, would be saved in expenses, and there can be no doubt that a similar sum would be received by increased price. If so, fifty millions dollars a year would be added to the cotton planters' income. This benefit would be common to all, and is deemed sufficient to justify the subscription of \$20,000,000, even if so much would be necessarily sunk in the operation. But your committee can see no reason why the capital should be lost. On the other hand, the cotton commissions, &c., have been estimated to be worth in the sea-ports \$5,437,500—the interest on the capital would be equal to at least \$1,000,000 more, making \$6,437,500, while the back storage, receiving and forwarding, commissions on consignments of other produce, and on vessels, with a great variety of smaller matters, would hardly fail to pay the expenses of conducting the business, leaving the interest and cotton commission business as a dividend of nearly thirty-three per cent. per annum to the stockholders.

Your committee have thus considered, as far as their means of investigation have allowed them, the questions of over-production; and our capacity for over-production, the influence of irregular production, and the possibility of controlling its effects, our ability to increase the consumption, improve the price, and save a large portion of the annual charges and expenses now paid. They have confined themselves to the discussion of a single plan or system of production, not doubting that there are others, and perhaps, better ones, which will be presented. should a convention of cotton planters be assembled. Accompanying this report they present the following resolutions for the consideration of this meeting:

Resolved, That the great irregularity, and continued tendency to reduction of the price of our great Southern staple, are evils which require investigation, and the application of a remedy, if one can be found.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this meeting, nothing is likely to be accomplished for the benefit of interest, without a reasonable amount of concert of action among cotton planters.

Resolved, That, with a view to obtaining such concert of action, we respectfully call on the cotton planters of the Southern States to assemble in Convention at Macon, Georgia, on Monday, 27th day of October next, or at such other time and place as may be most convenient to a majority of those who may desire to be represented, and that this meeting appoint delegates to the same.

On motion of Judge Brevard, the Report was received, and the Resolutions taken up *seriatim*, and unanimously adopted.

General Whitfield then offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Secretary of this meeting prepare copies of the foregoing Report and Resolutions, and ask publication of the same in *De Bow's Review*, the Agricultural papers of the South, and the papers of the city of Tallahassee.

On motion of Mr. Houstoun, it was then unanimously

Resolved, That we form ourselves into a Cotton Planters' Association, to be called the Central Association of the Cotton Planters of Florida.

The following gentlemen were then appointed Delegates to attend the Planters' Convention, to be held in the city of Macon, Georgia, on Monday, the 27th day of October next:

John S. Shepard, James E. Broome, Benj. Chaires, George Whitfield, George Galphin, T. W. Brevard, Edward Houstoun, W. D. Mosely, E. K. Call, W. M. Maxwell, F. Chairs, T. K. Leonard, Elijah Johnson, N. L. Thompson, G. W. Holland, John J. Maxwell, W. H. Burroughs, G. A. Croome, Alex. Cromartie, Richard H. Bradford, Edward Bradford, John Branch, Charles Bannerman, R. W. Williams, J. S. Maxwell, Green Chaires, Henry B. Ware, W. L. Thompson, James L. Hart, Thomas Laversage, George T. Ward, Jo Chaires, Jesse Everett, John Cason, Kenneth Bembry, Wm. Lester, Richard Whitaker, E. M. Garnett, R. H. Hall, Richard Van Brunt.

The officers of the meeting were, on motion, added to the number of delegates above designated

A committee of three, consisting of Edward Houstoun, James E. Broome and Theodore Brevard, were then appointed, to prepare a constitution and by-laws, for the government of said association, to be reported to their next meeting.

On motion, the meeting adjourned, to meet again on next Saturday, at 10 o'clock.

ROBERT BUTLER, *President*.

JOHN PARKHILL, }
G. W. HOLLAND, } *Vice-Presidents*.

B. B. ALLEN, *Secretary*.

2.—THE DISEASES AND PHYSICAL PECULIARITIES OF THE NEGRO RACE.*

[Concluded.]

In the Report on the Diseases and Physical Peculiarities of the Negro Race, read before the Medical Association of Louisiana, and published in the "New-Orleans Medical and Surgical Journal" of May last, I briefly enumerated some of the more striking anatomical and physiological differences separating the negro from the white man. Attention was also called to the fact, that the same medical treatment which would benefit or cure a white man, would often injure or kill a negro, because of the differences in the organic or physical characters imparted by the hand of nature on the two races. It was not deemed necessary, in that brief paper, to refer to authorities to prove the facts enumerated, which are just as well known and established in that branch of medicine embracing comparative anatomy and physiology, as the size and motion of the planets in astronomy. The report was not drawn up to meet objections coming from those persons who had never made comparative anatomy and physiology a special study. But as they have made objections to it, and are inclined to look upon

* By Samuel A. Cartwright, M. D.

the facts it sets forth as a farrago of nonsense, or at least as very questionable assertions, needing proof, the object of this paper is to give them the proof. This trouble might have been spared, if the comparative anatomy and physiology of the different races of mankind had not been strangely neglected in the course of instruction in the medical schools of the present day. In Europe, where there is but one race of mankind to treat, comparative anatomy and physiology are of no great practical importance: nevertheless, these branches have been extensively cultivated, particularly in Germany and France, by the greatest men that have ever adorned the medical profession. In this country, comparative anatomy has been very much neglected, and comparative physiology and therapeutics more so. Our northern states, like Europe, contain but one race of men, (except a few worthless free negroes,) and all the medical instruction of the books and schools in that region is confined to that one race. But here, in the South, we have two distinct races of people living in juxtaposition, in nearly equal numbers, differing widely in their anatomy and physiology, and consequently requiring a corresponding difference in their medical treatment. Yet, when it was asserted in the report, that the Queen of England's medical advisers, without a knowledge of the physical differences between the Ethiopian and Caucasian, would not be qualified to prescribe for a negro, great exceptions were taken to the remark by those who are aware that different temperaments, as the sanguine and phlegmatic, require important modifications in medical treatment, but were not aware that Cuvier, Ebel, Sæmmering, Malpighi, Pechlin, Meckel, Albinus, Stubner, Virey, Blumenbach, and many illustrious men, have long ago demonstrated, by dissections, so great a difference in the organization of the negro from that of the white man, as to induce the majority of naturalists to refer him to a different species, having a different origin. So great is the difference in the medical treatment demanded by the peculiar organization, physiology and habits of our black population, that very learned physicians from Europe and the northern states, on first coming South, have felt and acknowledged their incompetency to treat their diseases successfully until they have had time to make themselves acquainted with their peculiarities. The owners of slaves consider it safer, in most cases, to trust to the empiricism of overseers, rather than to the regular doctors who are newcomers, practising on the false abolition theory that the negro is only a lamp-blacked white man. There is nothing to prevent young physicians, newcomers to the South, from treating negroes successfully, if they were to study their diseases, their anatomy, physiology and pathology, with half the care they devote to the white paupers in the northern and European hospitals and almshouses. On coming South, they find no such class of persons as those whom they have mostly studied, to treat. They not only find no complaints arising from want of food, fire, clothing, and the common comforts of life, such as they have been accustomed to see in the hospitals, but they find one-half the population composed of a people whose anatomy and physiology is a sealed book to them. Although the every-day experience of the southern people proves that nature has made so great a difference between the white and black races as to make it absolutely necessary, for the safety of the state and well-being of society, that the latter should be subjected to different laws and institutions from the former, yet the text-books of the northern medical schools contain not a syllable to show what that difference is, but advise the same rules and principles, and the same therapeutic agents, as if there was no other race of mankind than that inhabiting the northern states.

The popular error prevalent at the North, that the negro is a white man, but, by some accident of climate or locality, painted black, requiring nothing but liberty and equality—social and political—to wash him white, is permitted to go uncorrected by the northern medical schools. This error can be and should be corrected at the dissecting table, by reviving comparative anatomy, and making it an essential part of a medical education. If the northern school will not correct it, the southern schools, instead of being, as they now are, northern institutions located in the South, using the same text-books, and echoing the same doctrines, should take upon themselves its correction, and have their own text-books, containing not only the anatomy, physiology and therapeutics applicable to the white race of people, but the anatomy, physiology and therapeutics of the black race also. As soon as they do this, the empire of medical learning will come South, where the study of two races of people will give students better oppor-

unities of acquiring knowledge than the one race at the North. Physicians will also reclaim the practice, among three millions of people, that the overseers have mostly got. It will be to the interest of the planters to employ physicians instead of overseers to treat the diseases of their negroes, as soon as they properly qualify themselves for this branch of southern practice. I have never known, in all my experience, a southern country physician want practice who was properly qualified to treat the diseases of negroes. It is only those medical men whose knowledge is confined to the diseases, the anatomy and physiology of only one race of men, as contained in the northern hornbooks in medicine, who are superseded by overseers and empirical practitioners.

So little attention has been paid to the anatomy and physiology of the negro race, that when it was mentioned among other peculiarities of the negro, that his blood was blacker than the white man's, it was supposed by those physicians who have paid no attention to comparative anatomy and physiology, that I was making random assertions, requiring proof, instead of reiterating truths that have been known for centuries, needing no other proof than the perusa of works of the highest authority in medicine.

Thus, Malpighi, the celebrated anatomist, of *rete mucosum* memory, says:—"Lacouleur noire reside non seulement dans le fluide qui colore le tissu muqueux, mais encore le sang, le part corticale du cerveau et plusieurs autres parts internes du corps imprégnées d'une teinte noire, et ce qui a été remarqué également par d'autres observateurs."

Here is not only the authority of Malpighi in proof of the darker color of the negro's blood, and the impregnation of the brain, membranes, and other internal parts of the body, with a darker hue, but likewise his testimony that other observers had remarked the same thing.

J. F. Meckel (see vol. xiii., p. 69, Mem. Acad. Berlin) says, that not only the blood, but the bile and cortical part of the brain are of a darker color in the negro than the white man. According to his authority, the negro is not only a negro on the skin, but under the skin. The words of that great comparative anatomist are:—"Le negre n'est donc pas seulement negre a l'exterieure, mais dans toutes ses parties et jusque dans les plus profondement situees."

Nich. Pechlin, in a work entitled "*De cute Ethiopum*," and Albinus, ("*Diss. de sede et causa coloris Ethiop.*") have remarked, that not only the blood, but the muscles of the negro are of a darker red than the white man. These authors also state that the membranes, tendons, and aponeuroses, so brilliantly white in the Caucasian race, have a livid cloudiness in the African.

J. J. Virey, one of the authors of the great Dictionary of Medical Sciences, Paris, says, in the thirty-fifth volume, page 388, that the negro's flesh differs in color from the white man's, as the flesh of the hare differs from the rabbit. This author confirms every thing said in the report about the darker color of the blood, membranes, smaller size of the brain, and larger size of the nerves in the negro than the white man.

The celebrated anatomists, Sæmmering and Ebel, also speak of the darker color of the blood, muscles, &c. These anatomists confirm every word in the report about the brain being smaller, and the nerves larger, in the black, than in the white race.

M. M. Cuvier, Gall and Spurzheim, also found the capacity of the brain about a ninth less in the negro than in the European.

Samuel George Morton (see "*Observations of the size of the Brain in Various Races and Families of Man*," Philadelphia, 1849,) has ascertained that the negro's brain is nine cubic inches less than the white man's.

Lately, some attempts have been made by British abolitionists to distort the facts of science, by representing the African brain as equal to that of the European, and the mind of the former equal to the latter. A certain Dr. Robert Bentley Todd, of King's College, London, in a work on the "*Observations of the Brain, Spinal Cord and Ganglions*," (London, 1845,) endeavors to throw some doubt and uncertainty on the received and well-established facts in regard to the inferiority of the negro's intellect, the comparative smallness of his brain, and the larger size of his nerves. Also, James Cowles Pritchard, another British writer, author of the "*Researches on the Physical History of Mankind*," in four volumes, (London, 1844,) an abolition work, disguised under the pretence that the autho-

rity of the Bible would be impeached if the great differences that natural historians and comparative anatomists professed to have discovered in mankind, were not called in question. Pritchard, in the preface of his work, admits that the weight of authority in the learned world is altogether against his conclusions. His conclusions, not flowing from the premises, prove that scientific truth was not the object of his work; that it was not written for learned men, but to cast dust into the eyes of the vulgar, to prevent them from seeing the truth on the slavery question. He pretends to be very fearful that the learned anatomists and naturalists, unless held in check, will bring the Scriptures into disrepute. He does not seem to be aware of what Cardinal Wiseman justly observes, that "it is only half-way science and half-way truths that militate against the authority of the Bible." The whole truth, when brought out, and perfect freedom of science to pursue its investigations untrammelled to its terminus, have, in every instance, demonstrated the truth of the Bible, while imperfect investigations and the omission of the truth, or the tying science down to the narrow interpretations of biblical commentators, have generally led to skepticism and infidelity. Pritchard seems to be so much afraid that if the differences which Malpighi, Sommering, Cuvier and other comparative anatomists have discovered in the negro's organization, approximating him to the monkey-tribes, be admitted, the Bible will be invalidated, that he has taken much pains to try to overturn general truths and principles by partial exceptions. He adduces instances to prove that white persons have turned black, in whole or in part, and that the negro's skin has, in some instances, turned white. But he ought to know that the change of color in all such cases is the effect of disease. Dr. Rush was so much afraid that the black skin, thick lips and flat nose of the negro would invalidate the Mosaic account of the creation of man, and the unity of the human family, that he published, in the Medical Repository, (vol. iv., p. 409) some suggestions, attributing the black color, thick lips and flat nose, to a disease resembling leprosy. But observation proved, that, so far from being the black color caused by disease, the blackest negroes were always the healthiest, and the thicker the lips, and the flatter the nose, the sounder the constitution. Both Pritchard and Todd labor to prove by a few cases, exceptions to the general rule, that the brain of the negro and his mental capacity are equal to the white man, lest the Scriptures be invalidated, if any inferior slave race be admitted. They overlooked the fact that the Mosaic history distinctly specifies an inferior slave race of people, called Canaanites, Gibeonites, &c., and that these people were reduced to slavery, and their country taken from them, by Divine command. In aiming to overthrow Cuvier's specific traits of the negro's organization, Pritchard did not seem to be aware that Cuvier and Moses agree exactly in their definitions—both defining the negro as the "knee-bender." (See Cuvier's *Mém. du Muséum d'Histoire Nat.*, tome iii., p. 159—where the anatomical structure of the negro's knees is brought forward, by the greatest naturalist the world ever saw, as a specific difference between him and the white man, and also the inferiority of intellect, from the diminished quantity of brain.) Exactly the same things are set forth in the inspired writings, by the name given to the Canaanite, or Ethiopian, race—the Hebrew verb, *Canah*, from which the word Canaan is derived, literally meaning *knee-bender—crushed or broken in mind*;—tantamount to Cuvier's race of man with weak and timid mind, and *les genoux à demi-flechiés*. Hence it would appear that the Bible does not stand in need of Todd, Pritchard and other British abolitionists to support its truth by special pleading, or, by dodging the truths of science.

Both Todd and Pritchard are compelled to admit that the negro's blood is darker than the white man's; but they deny that the brain is of a darker color, as Meckel, Pechlin, Albinus, Malpighi, and many other comparative anatomists have asserted. They quote three dissections made by Sommering, where the difference in color was not apparent, but rather unnaturally white. They concealed the fact, or did not know it, that disease tends to obliterate the dark color that pervades the negro's organization, giving the deeper-seated parts an unnatural whiteness. Thus, as the report sets forth, in negro consumption, the mucous membranes, instead of being dark, are paler and whiter than in the Caucasian race. It would be very unfair to adduce those cases of whiteness of the gums and mucous surfaces in diseased or consumptive negroes, to disprove the fact of darkness being the general rule.

Todd and Fritchard labor much to call in question the facts, heretofore observed by comparative anatomists, that the nerves leading from the brain are larger, in proportion, than in the white man. Yet they are forced to admit that the negro's sense of smell and hearing is more acute. The auditory and olfactory nerves must, therefore, be larger, or the physiological law of nervous development, being proportional to activity of function, must be denied. Those, likewise, who deny that the nerves of the stomach are no larger in the negro than the white man, are compelled to admit that his digestive and assimilating powers are stronger, which is the same thing as to admit that the nerves of organic life are larger.

Everything asserted in the report in regard to the negro's eye, and his bearing sunlight without a covering on his head, will be fully confirmed by reference to Sam. Thom. Semmering's work, entitled "*Icones Oculi Humani*," where it is distinctly stated that the *plica lunaris* in the inner canthus of the negro's eye is anatomically constructed like that of the orang-outang, and not like that of the white man.

Virey confirms every word said in the report about the small size of infant negro's heads, and the sutures being closed. (See *Dict. des Science Med.*, vol. xxxv., p. 401.)

In regard to the bones of the negro being harder, whiter, and containing more phosphate of lime than those of the white man, naturalists universally agree. Herodotus mentions the greater hardness of the Ethiopian skulls; proving, in that respect, at least, that the negro is the same now that he was two thousand years ago.

The *Crania Aegyptiaca* prove, as Morton justly observes, and has placed on the title-page of his catalogue of skulls, that "the physical or organic characters which distinguish the several races of men, are as old as the earliest records of our species."

A radical reformation is greatly needed in our system of medical education, which is so defective as to lead to the fatal error in practice, that there are no physical or organic characters in the negro's organization different from that of the white man. A blundering practice in ignorance of the negro's anatomy and physiology is not the only evil of this defective system of education. The peculiar phenomena indicating debasement of mind, springing from this difference in organization, are attributed by the *profanum vulgus* of the North to the effects of Southern slavery. But it could easily be shown, by anatomy, physiology, and ethnographical investigations, that the debasement of mind supposed to arise from Southern slavery, arises from causes imprinted by the hand of nature on the sons of Ham, so far back as the time when the catacombs of Egypt were constructed. The vulgar error that there is no difference in the negro's organization, physiology and psychology, and that all the apparent difference arises from Southern slavery, is the cause of all those political agitations which are threatening to dissolve our Union. The knowledge to correct this most mischievous error, which has already split nearly every Protestant denomination of Christians in the United States, is to be found by cultivating comparative anatomy, physiology, history and ethnography.

June 20th, 1851.

3. PEPPER.

One of the most useful vegetables in hygiene is red pepper. Especially in warm countries has it been considered invaluable as a stimulant and auxiliary in digestion. Among the French and Spanish races, it is used in the largest quantities, and they invariably enjoy most excellent health. Of late, particularly since the cholera visited our state, our planters have begun to discover the advantages of this vegetable, and mingle large quantities of it with the food of their negroes. Considerable attention has been drawn to the selection and cultivation of the best kinds of pepper. Among those who have appreciated the importance of this vegetable, is that admirable planter and exceedingly practical gentleman, Colonel Maunsel White, the proprietor of "Deer Range," commonly known as the model sugar plantation. Col. White has introduced the celebrated

tobacco red pepper, the very strongest of all peppers, of which he has cultivated a large quantity with the view of supplying his neighbors, and diffusing it through the state.

The tobacco pepper yields a small red pod less than an inch in length, and longitudinal in shape. It is exceedingly hot, and a small quantity of it is sufficient to season a large dish of any food. Owing to its oleaginous character, Col. White found it impossible to preserve it by drying; but by pouring strong vinegar on it after boiling, he has made a sauce or pepper decoction of it, which possesses in a most concentrated form all the qualities of the vegetable. A single drop of this sauce will flavor a whole plate of soup or other food. The use of a decoction like this, particularly in preparing the food for laboring persons, would be found exceedingly beneficial in a relaxing climate like this. Col. White has not had a single case of cholera among his large gang of negroes since that disease appeared in the South. He attributes this to the free use of this valuable agent.—*New-Orleans Delta*.

4.—FLAX VERSUS COTTON.

The public papers have lately occupied themselves with a controversy about the probability of finding in flax a substitute for and victorious rival to cotton, which, as it is alleged, has now become possible, by a pretended discovery by a certain Peter Claussen, in London, of a method of so preparing flax that it can be spun by the same machinery as cotton. The American planters need not be alarmed, as the idea of such a possibility can only be conceived by men who are entirely ignorant of technical matters in general, and the nature of flax and cotton in particular. Numerous attempts to obtain this end, have in these last fifty years been made in Europe by superficial or sanguine men, but all have failed, as it was to be expected. A microscopical examination shows, that the cotton fibre is a hollow, cylindrical fibre, covered with numberless points forming a kind of fur, which provides an adherence of one fibre to others when in contact, upon which the mechanical effect of the spinning machinery is based, whilst that of flax is flat, ribbon-like, and of a smooth, glossy surface. The consequence is, that when one fibre is pulled out of a mass, no others will follow or adhere to it of its own accord, unless drawn out by the same means, and laid alongside of others.

Whoever has once seen the spinning of flax by hand, with open eyes and mind, must be satisfied of this; and it is this essential difference of the two materials which qualified cotton for better absorbing and retaining the pigments of dyes in the interior, and between the fine fur of its outside.

The vain attempts to overcome this natural difference, have all been based upon the destruction, by chemical or mechanical means, of those qualities in which flax is superior to cotton, viz.: the length and greater strength and glossiness of its fibre; and not even a partial success has ever been obtained, even when flax was, by chemical means, so completely denaturalized, that it broke up into fragments and dust in the attempts to spin it.

Yet the only possible result was the invention of the machinery which is now used to spin flax, differing in its features and *modus operandi* from cotton machinery, as much as one fibre differs from the other; requiring greater care, and doing less work; and even this is only obtained with the partial loss of the strength of the flax fibre, as it is indisputable that in this respect, machine-spun linen is inferior to hand-spun. I may with this barely mention, that flax, as an agricultural crop, is one of the most precarious, most capricious, in its demand and choice of soil and climate, most uncertain in its results, as well in the soil as in divers laborious and difficult operations it requires, after being cut, and before it becomes fit for spinning.

Hence it will be, that this elder sister will always walk alongside of its younger competitor, cotton, and always command a price exactly so much higher as is warranted by its more difficult and laborious culture and manipulation, its superior strength and durability, its greater brilliancy, smoothness of touch, and other qualities, as surely as wax candles will always be preferred to tallow candles, and woodcocks be better paid for than matton.

G. A. S.

5.—THE WILD RICE CROP.

A paragraph with the above heading was copied in our paper on Thursday, from the Galena Advertiser, speaking of the wild rice as the remarkable production of the northern lakes, in Minnesota, and "the main dependence of the Indians for food during the long cold winters of the region," and expressing some apprehension lest the unusual high water this season should destroy the year's crop, and leave the poor red men to a winter of famine. A correspondent, whose curiosity has been excited, asks us for information respecting this "crop," with which, as well as the wild rice itself, he does not seem to have any very familiar acquaintance.

Any one who will take a walk to the nearest river bank of the Delaware and Schuylkill, below the city, or the first meadow ditch that can be found, or will even cast an eye at Smith's Island, or at any other place where the common "reeds," as they are called, of the Delaware, are to be seen growing, will have a perfect idea of what wild rice is; these same reeds, or water oats, as they are often called, being exactly the same plant as the wild rice of Minnesota, and other regions of the northwest. It is now flowering—at least it ought to be, though we cannot boast any special intimacy with it, or any other familiar friend of the field or river side this summer, and next month it will be producing that natural "crop," and a vast one it always is, of rich and nutritious grain, somewhat resembling the Southern cultivated rice, which here fattens black-birds, reed-birds, rails, and various marsh-birds, instead of being collected to store an Indian garner. Indeed, it is no easy thing to collect the grain of the wild rice in these regions. The black-bird is before us. The grain, too, when ripe, shatters out at the slightest stir of the breeze or ripple of the water, and there is some need of squaw experience, skill, and patience in collecting it. Perhaps there is even some difference in the variety of plants growing on the coast rivers of this our more southern latitude.

The wild rice is certainly collected in Wisconsin and Minnesota with an ease and in quantities which astonish people previously only acquainted with the eastern plant. The great wild rice region of the interior may be said to extend from the Wisconsin river on the south to Lake Winnipeg on the north, and between Lake Michigan and St. Peter's river. The rice is exceedingly abundant in the Menominee country, near Green Bay; and indeed the name of the plant in the widely-extended Chippewa tongue, shows that it either took its name from the Menominee Indians, or the Menominee Indians theirs from it. It grows in all the shallow lakes, and lagoon-like expanses of the rivers; and it is collected at the harvest season, by the Indian women, who go in canoes, two in each, one of whom pulling her way through the reeds, bends over the canoe each bundle as she grasps it, while the other strikes off the seed with the blow of the paddle. In this way a canoe-load is soon gathered; and a few industrious squaws, in ordinary seasons, find no difficulty in provisioning the wigwams of the lazy warriors, their husbands, besides selling stores of it to all the trading lodges of the whites in their vicinity.

Considering these facts, the wild rice of the northwest may well be deemed, as it really is, a highly important plant, destined, perhaps, in future days, to have some influence on the population in that country. It is very obvious that it may be cultivated like ordinary rice, wherever it may become an object to try the experiment; and there is every reason to believe it will prove, when reclaimed, extremely productive.

6.—LEBBY'S PUMPING MACHINE FOR DRAINING AND IRRIGATING RICE LANDS.

MESSES. EDITORS: A short time since, I visited Dr. E. WITSELL's plantation in the neighborhood of Ashpoo, and saw the operation of the machine above named, which he had lately procured, and works by steam-power. The result of the experiment was enough to attest its eminent usefulness in the draining of our inland swamps. Dr. Witsell's engine is capable of raising one hundred and twenty pounds of steam. In the experiment, however, before us, he only put up twenty pounds; but under the operation of that small quantity, the way the water was made to run out, "was'nt slow." It has already been sta-

ted in the newspapers, and no doubt correctly, that when set in motion by a steam engine of five-horse power, Lebby's Machine or Pump is capable of raising five to six thousand gallons of water per minute. Just think of draining two hundred acres of rice covered with water a foot deep, "clean dry" in twenty hours! What a valuable piece of machinery it must be to a vast body of rich inland swamp, which is now entirely unproductive and useless, except, perhaps, for pasturage! The great and most discouraging difficulty with such lands has been, to get a rice crop well set in the spring. How many, in attempting to cultivate them, after having planted, by a heavy dash of rain while the rice was in a white sprout, have been overflowed, and their rice drowned, killed; more than once, perhaps, in the same spring season? Mr. Lebby's machine contains a remedial answer to this question; for it is a safe and certain preventive against any such loss. I have not a doubt, as soon as its usefulness shall have become generally known and appreciated, that it will give him an abundance of hard work to furnish the number that will be wanted; for it will immediately call into active and profitable culture, (either of rice, cotton, or provisions, perhaps all,) an immense body of our low land, not now probably worth a dollar an acre, "in market overt."

It should be added, that Lebby's machine can be as well applied to flowing, or irrigating, as to draining; on the same spot, it can be made (with a slight change, capable of being effected in a short time,) to pump in, as well as out. There are a goodly number of plantations along the vicinity of our seaboard, situated like those upon the head-waters of Chessy creek, a branch of Ashepoo river, to which the tides regularly flow, but not to a height, or with a power, sufficient to flow much. Upon such plantations, look again upon the incalculable value of Lebby's pump in a drougthy season. As soon as the flood tide approaches the engine and the machinery can be put in motion, and in a few hours, (probably from the absorption of the parched earth it would require more time to cover land with water than to get it off,) if not in twenty, doubtless in thirty or forty hours, two hundred acres of rice could be flowed to the depth desired. Let it be borne in mind also, that such localities are never liable to salts; no inconsiderable advantage in view of the seasons we have had of late.

Dr. Witsell's engine stands upon four wheels, and can be moved easily enough. After a crop made, it might be hauled up and attached to a thrashing machine, a corn mill, cotton gin, or a saw mill, as the enterprise of its proprietor might prompt. It is hoped that public attention will be directed especially to the consideration and importance of Mr. William Lebby's pump

(Charleston, S. C.)
ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

7.—HOGS PACKED IN THE WEST.

The Cincinnati Price Current of last week compares the returns of hog raising for the past year as follows: 1849-'50, 1,652,200; 1850-'51, 1,332,867, thus showing a deficiency in number of 319,353.

The deficiency in weight was 10 per ct. Last year the hogs averaged 205 lbs., while this year the average was only 185 lbs. According to this, the product of the two years would be as follows in pounds:

1850, lbs.	349,140,010
1851, lbs.	243,779,640
Deficiency	105,777,640

This deficiency is equal to 552,839 hogs of this year's average, and the total is a fraction less than two thirds of the number packed last year.

The deficiency in the whole West, including number and weight, may therefore, we think, be put down with safety at one third.

In addition to the falling off in the number packed in the West, there is a deficiency of 60,000 in the hogs driven South.

The following is the product of the States:

	1850-'51.	1849-'50.
Ohio.....	398,556	553,745
Indiana.....	372,497	416,675
Illinois River.....	161,004	225,000
Mississippi River.....	165,400	215,000
Kentucky.....	205,414	201,000
Cumberland Valley.....	30,000	40,000
Total.....	1,332,867	1,652,220
		1,332,867
Deficiency.....		319,353

We have no doubt that the estimates for the Cumberland Valley are greatly under the mark. We have no reliable statistics to guide us, but we would not be far from wrong in placing the estimate, at least, at 100,000.

8.—TEA CULTURE IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

There is a gentleman in Georgia who has had several years' experience in India in the culture of tea plants, and the manufacture of tea; and it seems to be our duty to bring the matter fairly before our readers. For reasons, not of a personal or private character, we have for some time abstained from making public the information in our possession on this subject. As early as July, 1850, the Hon. Abbott Lawrence sent a communication from Mr. Francis Bonyngé, (the gentleman in Georgia to whom we allude,) addressed to the Secretary of the Interior, on the production of tea in this country, which came to the Agricultural Desk in the Patent Office, occupied by the writer. We have deemed the Letter of Mr. Lawrence, and the communication of Mr. Bonyngé, of sufficient interest to insert in the Agricultural Report for 1850; and we have read a paper of some thirty-five manuscript pages, written by Mr. B. to be used before the British Parliament, and seen him several times during his stay in Washington.

If success in the growing and curing of tea leaves depended on the very precarious life of an insect, like that of the silkworm, we should be extremely cautious how we encouraged even an experiment in the business. But the simple matter of picking the green leaves is the great labor in tea making; as picking is the serious work in cotton culture. From twenty to thirty pounds of green leaves are a day's work for a feeble Asiatic to gather; and we have good reason to believe that one hundred hands in China, do not on an average pick so much cotton in a day, as fifty in the Southern States. Indeed, this is the secret, or one of them, why the Chinese cannot, and do not compete successfully in cotton culture with the readers of this journal. A Tea tree needs to be replanted only once in twelve or fifteen years; and an acre will yield about 1200 pounds of green leaves a year, which will make 300 lbs. of merchantable Tea. Mr. Bonyngé employs some two hundred hands, and manufactured tea, after the leaves were gathered, at less than an English penny per pound. The East India Tea Company is now making about 200,000 chests a year, and produce a very superior article. The people of the United States annually consume over 20,000,000 lbs. and those of Great Britain over 50,000,000 lbs. It is truly one of the greatest staples of civilized man, and one that we regard as coming legitimately within the sphere of Southern climate, soil, labor, capital and enterprise. Of course, we esteem it as a matter of experiment only; but an experiment which ought to be fairly made, for if successful, incalculable advantages to the South will certainly follow.

We want that Mr. B. should see the tea plants near our friend Mr. A. R. Kilpatrick, of Trinity, La., referred to by him in the May number of the Cultivator. The trouble of procuring any considerable quantity of the tea seeds that will grow after they arrive in this country is quite a drawback to the enterprise. The Patent Office has received some bushels, but not a seed that vegetated. The operation will be better conducted in future; at least we hope it may. We have before us an interesting communication from Mr. Williams, American Consul at Canton, on the introduction of China fruits into the United States; extracts from which will appear in our next. Mr. Bonyngé has spent fourteen years in the East, and describes a variety of Coffee acclimated in a region so high above

the ocean, that the tree bears well in a climate subject to pretty severe frosts. It should be borne in mind, that cotton itself is a tropical tree—not naturally an annual plant, as we cultivate it in the region of frost. There is nothing improbable in our finding coffee trees that will flourish in all our Gulf States, as far North as 150 miles from the coast. Mangoes and other fruits are also worthy of trial. A chest of tea has been brought from Shanghai to the White House for the President, in sixty-five days, via San Francisco and Panama. Once it took nearly three years to circumnavigate the globe; now, with good luck in meeting steamers, one can go round the world in one hundred and forty days. Indeed, sailing vessels have come from China to California in thirty-three, or thirty-five days. A man must be slow if he cannot live a century in the next thirty-three years. *Southern Cultivator.*

9.—CULTIVATION OF TEA, INDIGO, &c.

Mr. Bonyng, who is referred to in the last paper, has written a letter for the *Charleston Mercury*, which, as presenting some new views, we extract:

My object is to show you the imperative necessity you are under to bestir yourselves, and to introduce, not one staple only, but many, and save your country from the impending depression that hangs over it. I will take the last twenty-four years of the rice trade for comparison, viz: from 1824 to 1847, both years included:

	Tierces.		Tierces.
From 1824 to 1829 six years.....	676,816	average.....	112,802
“ 1830 to 1835 “.....	761,311	“.....	126,885
“ 1836 to 1841 “.....	648,458	“.....	108,076
“ 1842 to 1847 “.....	774,988	“.....	129,164

You will perceive, in the above comparative review of the rice consumed in, and exported from Charleston, that in reality there is a decline, for twelve years, of one per cent. per annum.

Prices from 1835 to 1841, seven years, average yearly \$3 30 to \$3 88
 “ “ 1842 to 1848, “ “ “ “ 2 94 to 3 57

Showing a falling off in price of 10 per cent. nearly; but observe what is a most notorious and remarkable instance in this decay. It has taken place with a four years' famine in Ireland, and the universal failure of the potato and grain crops of the continent of Europe.

There have been extensive failures this year on Cooper River, &c. In a prosperous state such failures would be the concern of the individual only; but now it is a national loss, for the successful planter will obtain no higher price. There is so much less to export and to command imports; therefore, the planters, the merchant, the mechanic, and storekeepers, will feel it.

It would be well to ascertain the cause of decline in your rice trade. It cannot be, as you may see, from an over-supply produced in Carolina, for we see.

	Tierces.
From 1824 to 1835, twelve years shipments to Europe,.....	668,669
“ 1836 to 1847, “ “ “ “ “ “.....	556,264

Decline on shipments in twelve years..... 102,405

Now, with eight millions of people starving for some four or five years of that twelve years, general failure of the potato and short grain crops on the continent of Europe, food must have been supplied from somewhere. The merchant must be aware of the gradual displacement on the continent of American rice by East Indian (Patna and Arrakan) rice. The English merchant can ship rice, or rough rice, to England, there clean it and reship it to the continent, and undersell the rice of this state. I mean at their comparative values. However, the famine in Ireland, &c., did, in some way, retard the galloping consumption of the trade in this article, for in 1846—1847 there was one-half as much shipped to England as there had been in the five preceding years. Look to India, from where you have so much to apprehend. On either side of the Bay of Bengal, viz: from Balezore to Madras, and opposite Arrakan, the price of paddy or rough rice, is:

For 120 to 260 lbs., 1 rupee, or 45 cents.

Carolina, 1 bushel, 45 to 47 lbs., 90 cents.

Value of Carolina rice, 18 shillings sterling.

Arrakan Carolina rice, 10 shillings sterling.

Taking the bulk, the Arrakan is 530 to 710 per cent. cheaper, or according to quality, nearly 300 per cent. cheaper.

The rice planter of India, with his wife and children, labor in the field. The man's clothing consists of a strip of cloth passing between his legs—one end tied up before and the other behind by a string round his body; that little piece of cloth serves him for a couple of years' clothing. His rice, fish, salt, tobacco, &c., cost him nearly thirty cents a month. It may be supposed that a poor man in that condition could not contend with the planter of Carolina with his hundreds of slaves, but that is not the case; the naked Indian has the advantage through the combination of all the planters in a district. A rice field, or rather district, is very extensive in India. Standing on the margin, the eye might wander over it, the same as if standing on the sea shore. Government makes up the water dams, &c. The rice lands are so extensive in India, none subject to failure is used, or need be used.

Since writing the above, I have obtained the consumption and exports of the city of Charleston in rice:

For 1848—1849, 150,330 tierces. Price \$2 80 to \$3 35

For 1849—1850, 134,417 “ “ 2 87 to 3 23

or a decline on the two years compared with the prices of seven years, from 1835 to 1841, of nearly 15 per cent.

Now, take cotton in its yearly decline in value of say 30 per cent. for the last twelve years; rice, in quantity and value, 11 per cent. for the last seven years—making up in the two staples together a decline of 41 per cent.

I have shown in my letter of the 25th instant the fears that the planters of cotton may entertain.

In this letter I have shown that the rice trade is still in a far worse state than cotton, and that famine and scarcity do not prop it up.

I have shown that the falling off in these staples is not temporary or accidental, but gradual, and that for years the canker worm has been eating at their vitals; and so much so, that a loss in crop injures not alone individuals, but diminishes to the extent of failure, the wealth of the state.

I have shown nations all at earnest work to share in the cotton trade. England, alarmed that in case of any interruption to good understanding that she would be cut off of her supply of cotton, and millions of her subjects thrown into the utmost destitution, that the people of Manchester, and spinners through the united kingdom, and the shipping interest, have resolved upon producing a supply of cotton in East India.

We know that these interests are on the proper trail, and if they will persevere, must succeed.

Some will reply, danger has been often threatened. But has it not come? Is not its advance-guard in your camp? Has it not exhausted 41 per cent. of your usual resources?

You have often heard the cry of “wolf;” you have now his head and neck within your fold; he will soon introduce his body, and assuredly will carry off your too sick noisings.

I will shortly recapitulate the foregoing, and show in round dollars the amount of decline.

Rice from 1824 to 1835, 12 years' produce, 1,423,446 tierces, at \$3 30c. to \$3 88c.—\$4,745,878 to \$5,461,882.

Rice from 1836 to 1847, 12 years' produce, 1,423,446 tierces, at \$2 94c. to \$3 58c.—\$4,191,390 to \$5,083,261.

This calculation will show that the highest range of prices has suffered less than the lower: however, the loss on this trade for 12 years, \$554,428 to 381,621, or yearly, \$46,202 to 31,801.

Cotton from 1827 to 1838, twelve years, 14,049,000 bales, at 12½c. per lb., \$567,890,400.

From 1839 to 1850, 12 years, 25,545,000 bales at 8 1-15 per lb. \$635,162,100.
For 11,497,000 bales there was a price of \$67,271,700 obtained, or \$5 85c. per bale, or per lb. 1 5-6 cents only!

Now, the tea and indigo trade together is of as great a magnitude as cotton and rice, and will be infinitely more so, once tea bursts the egg-shell space in which its cultivation is confined in China.

I will show you, gentlemen, the comparatively little labor tea cultivation requires at your hands.

First year: Place the seeds four inches apart in drills, keep the bed weeded and moist.

Second year: Transplant into fresh land, clear the brush-wood only; hoe the ground once; leaving the large trees.

Third year: Hoe the ground once, weed it once.

Fourth year: Labor of tea making. A woman can pick 60lbs. of green leaf. A woman or man can manufacture them into 15 lbs. of dried tea. The average on good tea lands is 320 lbs. of best kinds of black teas.

EXPENSE OF MANUFACTURING.

A woman's wages, say, per diem.....	—
Charcoal and firewood $\frac{1}{2}$ cent per lb. }	15 lbs.....
Packages, &c., 1 cent per lb. }	22 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wages of a man for a day.....	—

But if machinery, this last item disappears. The above statement is for the making of 15 lbs. of best black tea.

Tea trees will last 25 to 30 years.

I propose tea, indigo, and date trees, &c. I do not propose that these should displace cotton and rice; by no means. All I propose is, that you should give of 999-1000 parts of your territories now forest wastes, a little, a very little portion of that waste.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—TEHUANTEPEC RAIL-ROAD.

Though this great and important work has received an interruption from the absurd and narrow jealousies of the Mexican government, we cannot have a doubt it will be eventually completed. We, therefore, publish the following valuable paper from the pen of the engineer, Major Barnard, that our readers may see the practicability of the scheme:—

EL BARRIO, MEXICO, April 4, 1851.

SIR:—Your favors of the 6th and 27th of February, and 27th of March, are just received by the Alabama. After my report of the 14th January, and other letters from Chevela, I again addressed you from Boca del Monte, communicating the progress of the survey up to that period. This was supposed to be the latest date which would reach Minatitlan in time for the Alabama's third trip. We were in daily expectation, for a month or more, and for this cause I wrote no further.

I have now to state, that the survey is nearly completed, as far as I consider necessary for present purposes, and that most satisfactory results have been obtained. I will briefly communicate the results.

Mr. Temple's survey of the river, shows that he considers it navigable, *at all stages*, as high as Suchil, for light draught steamers, and to Paso Sarabia, or higher, during the rainy season. He has been on the Pacific coast for a month; and, though he has not yet made the soundings, he has, no doubt, about the depth of water, and considers either the Ventosa or Salina Cruz available for a harbor, the latter preferable. In fact, this coast may be considered as practicable as

many or most land-locked harbors on the Atlantic; for the prevailing and strong winds are from the north and off the shore, against which, of course, the land affords protection; and, though the surface of the water may be rough, and a strong surf breaks on the shore, yet nothing like a *sea* is raised, and steamers or vessels can lie in perfect safety. The southerly or southeasterly winds, which occur in certain periods of the summer, are little more than *squalls*, and not at all dangerous. I do not think breakwaters absolutely necessary, but eventually some arrangements would be made for landing and receiving passengers and goods with facility. In the commencement of the enterprise, good *surf-boats* are all that would be necessary. I think there can be *no doubt* about the *entire practicability* of this coast. I will now speak of the rail-road route.

From the Ventosa to the foot of the mountains, we have level plains, offering a choice of routes, plenty of stone and timber at hand, of the best quality for the structure. The cost of this portion (about thirty-five miles) will be very trifling. The ascent of the mountains by the Masahua Pass has now been surveyed, and the line run through beyond the Sarabia. The result is found to be, that a grade of forty or fifty feet per mile can be carried up the Pass, and that the difficulties are not greater than have been surmounted on roads in the United States; thence to the "Lomas de Xochiapa," say fifteen miles, the ground is easy or moderately broken. Through the "Lomas de Xochiapa," say ten or fifteen miles, more difficulties again occur, but they are not extraordinary; thence ten or twelve miles further to the Sarabia, the ground is perfectly easy. Through the forest country, from "Paso de la Puerta" to the Jaltepec, and thence through to "Jesistepec," some difficulties will be met with, but I fancy nothing serious. The survey has, actually at this moment, been extended from the foot of the Masahua Pass to the Sarabia, and thence Mr. Avery's party is extending it towards "Paso de la Puerta" and the Jaltepec. Mr. Williams's party have just gone down to the Jaltepec, towards Jesistepec. All this will, I think, be completed in a month, and the parties ready to return by the middle or latter part of May. As Mr. Avery has already made a reconnoissance from Minatitlan to Jesistepec, and found the ground to offer no difficulties, I do not consider an actual survey necessary for present purposes, as the question is plain, and the ground easy. In addition, in my letter from "Boca del Monte," I stated the expediency, in the first instance, of commencing the line on the Jaltepec.

Taking the whole extent of the road into consideration, the ground is remarkably easy, and timber, stone, &c., are at hand in abundance; and the right of way, (so serious an item in the United States,) will have cost little or nothing. No estimate can be made at present, but I think I am safe in saying that the means appropriated by the committee are ample. In relation to the lands connected with the grant, I think it safe to say, a finer tract cannot be found in the world.

An immense number of invaluable productions, (comprehending all, or almost all, the valuable productions of tropical climates,) can be raised here with the greatest facility, while the forests abound with natural productions of great value. Throw in an enterprising population here, and the Isthmus would become the garden spot of the world.

In relation to opening a traveling route, I think it is only necessary to establish steamers, connecting with the two coasts a small steamer, or steamers, on the river, and the horse or mule transportation across would soon be supplied. Passengers can be got across the Isthmus with such means in six or seven days from Minatitlan to the Pacific. There are people on the Isthmus ready to establish the land communication the moment the steamers commence running; so that this part of the business will give the company no trouble. In conclusion, there can be no exaggeration in saying, that this is the route, and the one which will supersede all others; and leaving out of consideration the value of the route, the value of the lands, and the local wealth to be produced, would almost pay the building of the rail-road, and be an immense contribution to the commerce of New-Orleans. I believe, moreover, that no statement or estimate you have seen made as yet, realizes the full value of this route and grant; it can scarcely be appreciated. I would say, too, that the people on the Isthmus are all friendly to the utmost degree to the enterprise, and that large subscriptions of stock can

be obtained by an authorized agent. I should mention that rich beds of iron ore exist here, and that indications of silver are apparent.

Reports will be made on this subject; a geological examination has been made, and such researches as could be made, with our means, into the natural productions of the Isthmus.

I would mention officially, that I am convinced that Mr. Trastour's operations on the Pacific have been carried on with great zeal and energy, and under great disadvantages. Mr. Temple states that his charts are excellent, and perfectly reliable. I feel it a duty to state this, as so much has been circulated to his disadvantage.

I think the surveying parties will get through their work by the end of this month, and will be ready for transportation at Minatitlan by the 15th May.

Of the funds now remaining available here, there are about \$7,500 still in Tehuantepec, \$5,700 here, and \$3,000 still remaining in Vera Cruz, say \$16,200 in all, which will be, I think, sufficient to pay the expenses of the parties, and I should think two-thirds or three-fourths their salaries.

I am, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. G. BARNARD, Bvt. Major U. S. A.

J. P. BENJAMIN, Esq., Chairman of Managing Committee, &c.

2.—RAIL-ROAD INFLUENCES.

We copy from the Lafayette Journal the following extract from a series of articles in that paper, written by Hon. A. S. White, President of the Lafayette and Indianapolis Rail-road. In addition to its intrinsic merits, it is well worth perusal, as giving a good idea of the feeling which prevails throughout the West upon the subject of railways:

The productions of the soil and of labor, are the immediate and only sources of national wealth. Rail-roads are the best *media* through which the products are made available to the general use, and convertible into the standards of value. Of what account is our fertile soil, and to what end shall we labor, if we remain in our pastoral and primitive seclusion? The ascent of the steamboat up our river, and the completion of our canal, have marked successive eras of improvement in our condition, and if all the world stood still around us, might continue to sustain us in our present growth. But are we content with this? For ourselves and for our children, our ambition as citizens aims much higher. Planted in the best part of the Mississippi valley, where all the comforts and luxuries of civilized life may be reached in their highest excellence, we desire to see all our resources unfolded, and our society advance in all its various forms. This will not only be realized in an increase of our wealth, but in the heightening of our moral and intellectual condition. In these channels of commerce, arts and manufactures will follow. The intercourse of the world will bring to us its intelligence. We shall be visited by the best classes of emigrants, and with the increase and improvement of our population, schools, lyceums, churches, agricultural and mechanical societies, will be instituted and sustained, general intelligence will increase, social intercourse will be refined and promoted. To none are these results so interesting, as to our country friends and their young families.

Hitherto the great waters have been the sites of cities, and the points of enterprise; and ships, the messengers of commerce, have connected continent with continent and city with city; but those "canvas-backed birds of the ocean" could never display on our prairies the rich exchanges of commerce. Soiled, faded, and out of time, those exchanges came to us in Canestoga wagons or sluggish canal boats. The traveler who would record our manners, or note our history, passed around our inaccessible region. On account of her contiguity to the great lakes and to "The Father of Waters," even our younger sister, Illinois, has stolen our name, and the honors of our primogeniture. Throughout the entire east, the whole region west of Ohio was known only as Illinois, and Hoosier character was just enough developed to point some tale of romance, whose hero was the wonderment of civilization, and the affright of ladies. A gentleman just returned from Rochester, told me that an intelligent friend there inquired of him "if Lafayette was on Fox River?"

It is the glory of the rail-road system that it has brought the country in contact with the city; or rather that it has brought the city into the country. Selecting its own track, always a golden one, it does not travel over sterile fields of ocean, or along miasmatic and overflowed valleys; but speeding through a thousand harvest fields, and past as many workshops in a single day, it leaves its tribute and scatters its favors with the quickness of thought, ready to return again to its diurnal round through the circuit of the year, fending neither frosts, nor drought, nor tempests, nor embargo, nor blockade.

If this language is figurative, it portrays facts of our daily experience. The rail-road has proved itself the dominant system of the 19th century. No city or village now can flourish which is cut off from its influence. Look at the expensive race of rivalry that Boston and New-York, and the slow-moving city of Philadelphia, and Baltimore, with her unflinching perseverance, are running, to secure by this instrumentality the western commerce! See how Buffalo, enthroned on the lakes, and her great Erie canal, has been started at the thunders of little Dunkirk! How Dayton, nearer to us, in her cobweb of turnpikes, and secure in the fatness of the Miami valley, has embarked with an alarmed but determined zeal, almost too late, in the rail-road career! How Cincinnati, after the sun of her prosperity has culminated, and when, to use the language of Dewitt Clinton, applied to New-York city some thirty years ago, "she has reached the self-sustaining point," and how Louisville, even while I am writing, have poured out each a million of treasure to avoid, by an anchorage of iron, being thrown from their orbits! Look also at the smiling countenance of our coy neighbor, Indianapolis, whom nature destined to rurality, and consigned to the genius of parchment and law-giving, but whom art has snatched from this "manifest destiny," and made her the centre, geographically at least, of this western world! Many rail-roads cannot be built. Those favorably situated as trunk lines and first in time, secure to the regions they penetrate, advantages that we now can scarcely realize.

3.—RAIL-ROADS FROM NEW-ORLEANS INTO TEXAS.

It appears to me, investments in a road leading from New-Orleans to any point on the Sabine River, south of where the Louisiana line leaves it, thence to the Brazos and Colorado Rivers, on to Guadalupe and San Antonio, would, in a short time, pay better than any other line, leading to or from New-Orleans. The whole state of Texas, as large as she is, is comparatively new, and rapidly increasing in wealth and population. She has, as yet, hardly begun to develop her resources. In extending roads north, we are striving to regain the trade now lost to us—part of it, at least, irretrievably gone—the road running through a country that is stationary, if not on the decline; at any rate, not increasing in its amount of produce. In going west, we penetrate a country that is new, rich, constantly filling up with persons from the region of country through which the northern roads are intended to run, not to mention the tens of thousands from every other quarter.—With such an increase of population and wealth, there must be a corresponding increase in the productions and travel. A large portion of the produce in the north-west will go to the east, roads or no roads. It has passed out of our reach—it is beyond our grasp. Let us secure while we may, that which is west and south-west. It is still within our reach—we have but to stretch forth our *iron arms*, and it is ours.

There is a strong effort being made in New-York, to secure the trade of South-west Texas. During a short but recent tour in Western Texas, I more than once met four or five business men from New-York, representing as many different branches of Manchester trade, all electioneering for, and striving to secure the trade of that rich and important region. A large portion of the sugar and cotton raised in Western Texas is now shipped to New-York direct, and is sold in that market. They say they have the best market, both to sell and buy, and that the most natural channel through which to convey their cotton and sugar, is by ships to New-York. Many of the Texans say the same thing, and there is more truth than poetry in the saying. In going to New-York there is no re-shipment for the produce, nor for merchandise. It is so now, and will continue to increase, until a rail-road penetrates that region. Houston is nearly due west from New-Or-

leans; the road can be constructed or carried a little north of the true line, to avoid Sabine Lake, and other lakes in Louisiana, or there might be a terminus at Plaquemine, Bayou Goula, or some other convenient point on the Mississippi River. From there to New-Orleans the navigation is always good, and it would be a great saving. Galveston is only some twenty miles further south than the mouth of the Mississippi River. The line in a few years might be extended to Eagle Pass, or any other convenient point on the Rio Grande. A branch might and ought to be extended into the rich cotton growing section in the north-west of Texas, in a line for Santa Fe, and thence, if need be, to the Pacific, and thus anticipate or intersect Mr. Whitney's great road. A road running half-way between the coast and the mountains, would secure all the carrying trade both ways. A large majority of those on the coast would go into the interior one hundred miles to escape the sickening and dangerous Gulf. From the coast to the mountains will average about one hundred and sixty miles. There would then be no impositions, as some complain of there being now.

4.—NEW-ORLEANS, HOLLY SPRING³, AND LAKE MICHIGAN RAIL-ROAD.

We extract from the letter of H. W. Walter, Esq. to James Robb, some considerations in favor of this road, and shall add others of our own, in this or the next number of the Review.

"I take it for granted, that the New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road will be completed. *That is a fixed fact.* As soon as that work is accomplished, your communication with the north and east will not only be abundant, but by diversified routes. You can pass from Jackson to Montgomery, Ala., thence to Charleston; or you can pass to Selma, thence by the Selma and Alabama Rail-road, thence by the Hiwassee Rail-road, thence by the Valley Railroad to Richmond; or you can pass by the road *that will be constructed* from Jackson centrally through Mississippi, to the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road, intersecting the roads above mentioned, all leading you northward and eastward. By these roads, too, you can reach the Chattanooga and Nashville Rail-road. *Where are your rail-roads in this direction, but where do you find your communications with the Mississippi valley, the natural tributary of New-Orleans?* I have alluded to the road from Jackson, Miss., to Montgomery. *That road will be completed.* The state of Mississippi now offers as a bonus, to any company which will complete the road from Brandon to the eastern boundary of our state within six years, the two per cent. fund, donated by Congress for this purpose, the state laborers on the road consisting of sixty-five likely negro men, fourteen miles of road completed, with all its cars, engines, &c., and a considerable grade eastward of Brandon, valued in all at four hundred thousand dollars. This bonus, with the lands that may reasonably be expected as a grant from Congress, will of themselves almost complete this road. Alabama is waiting on her western boundary to shake hands with Mississippi, and conduct her by railway to Montgomery. The completion of this road is not now even problematical, and over it New-Orleans will find a *better route*—more diversified routes, as before shown—to the north and east, than can possibly be found elsewhere. * * *

"What, then, shall New-Orleans do? Remain inactive? By no means. I propose that your New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road shall be continued northward centrally through Mississippi, midway between the Mississippi River and the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road in that state, intersecting the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road; thence to Jackson, Tennessee, there cross the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road; thence still northward midway between the Mississippi and Tennessee Rivers, to some point where you may bridge the Ohio, intersecting the Mississippi and Ohio Rail-road; thence by the Illinois Central Rail-road to the foot of the lake, intersecting the colossal artery to the hundred railway veins running to that point from the north and the east; thus binding tributary the Galena and St. Louis Rail-roads, thus piercing this mighty valley, and thus bringing over this road the produce and persons of the millions of its inhabitants, and placing them in a few hours in the Queen City of the South. Thus, I suggest, should New-Orleans tap and intersect every road, whether owning a terminus in New-England, in the Middle States, or on the Atlantic seaboard; and thus, whilst opening as available a communication with the North as can be

found by Nashville and Louisville, pierce the colossal commercial colonies of New-Orleans. Take your map, sir, and look at the route here proposed, and then at the route proposed by your citizens, and tell me which is the better route. You will soon have in abundance your communications with the North and the East, and you *must* now turn your attention to your commercial colonies, who "have paid taxes without representation," who are now bearing ten millions of their commerce annually to more liberal sovereigns, and who may, in a few years, declare an entire independence of New-Orleans. But if in addition to your route by Chattanooga, already pointed out, you must have an additional road to Nashville, then the road I propose will give you not only one, but two. At some point in North Mississippi it would intersect the Memphis and Charleston road, would run eastward with it to Crow Creek, and there take the Chattanooga and Nashville road to Nashville. This is one route. The other is obvious to every one. When the proposed road shall reach Jackson, Tennessee, it will intersect the Nashville and Memphis Rail-road; but if this is not built, then a branch can be easily run from Jackson to Nashville. * *

"The southern part of Illinois is to be the grand commercial centre of our Republic. There is found the geographical centre of our country—there is the geographical centre of the Mississippi Valley—there is our hydrographical centre, and there, in a few years, *will* be found the great rail-road centre of our Union. At the foot of her lakes lie the colossal artery of the northern and eastern veins of railways; at her southern point is found the termini of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, and the Illinois Central Rail-road; across her southern border the Ohio and Mississippi Rail-road finds her route; Galena seeks a terminus at La Salle; St. Louis at Cairo; Boston and New-York have there 'met together;' Baltimore and Philadelphia, with Mobile and St. Louis, will there 'kiss each other.' It requires no prophetic vision to predict, that in ten years Illinois will possess more railway than any other state of our Union; that she will be the sun or centre of our railway system, as she is now our geographical centre. Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston and Mobile, with a penetration and shrewdness that do them credit, have looked to this point, and are now striving manfully to reach it. They know well that

* The Star of Empire westward moves.*

and they are determined to follow it. And yet New-Orleans, *mirabile dictu!* is attempting to run from this, her great commercial tributary; is actually throwing the substance from her mouth to catch a shadow in the distance. 'They whom the gods wish to destroy, they first make mad.' In fifty years, one hundred millions of population, and untold millions of commerce, will be found in this valley—the most gigantic commercial empire of earth: will here be found—from all which, New-Orleans is running like a backsliding sinner.

"Now, sir, I propose that your policy shall change. To this great commercial, rail-road, geographical centre of our Union, through a country rich in the elements of commerce, able and willing to aid you with money, owning, with pride, an allegiance to your city, would I direct your liberal and enlightened views. Sweep up the Mississippi valley to that territory that nature has marked as your natural tributary, and in so doing you will cross or tap every rail-road running from the Atlantic to the Mississippi valley. You will, it is true, come in competition with the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, running to some extent in the same direction, but you will have but one competitor, and you will run directly north, whilst Mobile will run northwest, and you will thus gain on her in distance every foot of the way to this great commercial and railway centre. If you will, however, run your 'pet road,' you will come in competition with many roads running on nearly the same parallels in a contracted space; you will be running northeast while they are running north and south, and thus you will lose in distance every foot of the way. I have thus endeavored to throw out some general hints, which I hope may claim the attention of men of more extended information and more mature judgment than myself. I hope, in a short time, to furnish some statistical information to support the suggestions here thrown out.

"Respectfully, &c.,

"H. W. WALTER."

5.—RAIL-ROADS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

An interesting table is published in the Boston Transcript, compiled from various official reports, made to the Legislature in 1849, 1850, and 1851. It exhibits the operations of the rail-roads in Massachusetts, and of those running from that into the adjoining states. During the years named, 25,594,000 persons were carried over them, a number nearly equal to the entire population of the United States. The number carried in 1848 was 7,333,870; 1849, 8,633,230; in 1850, 8,973,681. The cost of fifteen of the roads named in the table, on the first of January, 1848, (the others not being completed at that time,) was \$34,038,700; January 1, 1851, \$41,055,200. Increase in three years, \$7,016,500. The nett earnings of the same roads in 1847 were \$2,564,190; in 1850, \$3,032,788. Increase \$468,598. The nett earnings of the whole number during the year 1848, were \$2,785,897; in 1849, \$3,115,420; in 1850, \$3,480,347. The gross receipts in 1848 were \$5,908,144; in 1849, \$6,421,967; and in 1850, \$6,903,328. Their total length, including branches, is 1,120 miles.

6.—THE COURSE OF TRADE ON RAIL-ROADS.

We see it noticed in several New-York papers, that a canal boat, laden with cotton, has passed through the Erie canal, its cargo destined for New-York city. This is not a new event. For years past, cotton has gone up the Ohio river from Tennessee, and through the Pennsylvania and New-York canals, to all the factories in the interior of those states, and often to the cities of Philadelphia and New-York. We recollect, last September, of one shipment of upwards of seven hundred bales shipped from Louisville via the Ohio and New-York canals to New-York city. The freights were less than by the way of New-Orleans, and the difference in exchange and insurance was near two per cent. in favor of the northern route. The amount of cotton that passed up the Ohio last year is estimated, by one familiar with the trade, at sixty thousand bales. This season, nearly all the boats from the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, bound up the Ohio river, are freighted more or less with cotton. The packets between Memphis and Louisville, and Cincinnati, of which there are several lines, take cotton up the river nearly every trip. The eastern manufacturers buy their cottons in New-York and Boston markets on four and six months' credit. It is said, if the same facilities of credit could be extended to them by the planters or the factors in the western towns, all of the manufacturers in the interior portions of the Middle States would purchase their cottons in the regions of its growth, for it costs them no more to get the raw material from Buffalo to Pittsburgh, than it does to bring it from New-York and Philadelphia to their mills, while the transportation from Tennessee to those inland cities is much less than it is by the way of New-Orleans to the Atlantic markets.

The quantity of tobacco that takes its course up the river from the lower Ohio, for the eastern markets, by the northern routes, is rapidly increasing. That raised in Ohio and Kentucky above Cincinnati—and among the latter, the celebrated Mason county tobacco—nearly all goes now by the way of the canals to the eastern markets. By a statement recently published, the difference in the cost of transportation from Louisville to New-York, is from four to five dollars per hog-head in favor of the northern route, while the article escapes the sweat which it undergoes on shipboard while passing through our latitudes.

Grain is now carried from the Wabash to New-York by the canals, at the same cost of freight as is charged by the way of New-Orleans; but by the northern route they incur no waste, nor risk of damage by heating, and save the whole cost of sacking, for it is carried in the bulk, and the same number of measured bushels are delivered in New-York as are received on board the canal boat from the shipper. The lard, pork and flour from the same region are taking the same direction. Last autumn, the rich regions of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois were flooded with the local bank notes of the Eastern States, advanced by New-York houses, on produce to be shipped to them, by the way of the canals in the spring. These moneyed facilities enable the packer, miller, and speculator, to hold on to their produce till the opening of navigation in the spring, and they are no longer obliged, as formerly, to hurry off their shipments by way of New-Orleans, in order to realize funds by drafts on their shipments. The banking facilities at the East are doing as much to draw trade from us as the canals and railways which Eastern capital is constructing.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF GROWTH.

Crop of	Bales.	Crop of	Bales.
1850-1.....	2,355,257	1836-7.....	1,422,930
1849-50.....	2,096,706	1835-6.....	1,360,725
1848-9.....	2,728,596	1834-5.....	1,254,328
1847-8.....	2,347,634	1833-4.....	1,205,394
1846-7.....	1,778,651	1832-3.....	1,070,438
1845-6.....	2,100,537	1831-2.....	987,477
1844-5.....	2,394,503	1830-1.....	1,038,848
1843-4.....	2,030,409	1829-30.....	976,845
1842-3.....	2,378,875	1828-9.....	857,744
1841-2.....	1,683,574	1827-8.....	720,593
1840-1.....	1,634,945	1826-7.....	957,281
1839-40.....	2,177,835	1825-6.....	720,027
1838-9.....	1,360,532	1824-5.....	569,249
1837-8.....	1,801,497	1823-4.....	509,158

CONSUMPTION.

Total Crop of the United States, as before stated.....	2,355,257
Add—	
Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year,	
1st Sept., 1850—	
In the Southern Ports.....	91,754
In the Northern Ports.....	76,176—167,930
Makes a supply of.....	2,523,187
Deduct therefrom—	
The export to foreign ports.....	1,988,710
Less, foreign included.....	1,077—1,987,633
Stocks on hand, 1st September, 1851—	
In the Southern Ports.....	89,044
In the Northern Ports.....	39,260— 128,304
Burnt at New-York, Boston and Baltimore.....	3,142—2,119,079
Taken for home use.....	404,103

QUANTITY CONSUMED BY AND IN HANDS OF MANUFACTURERS NORTH OF VIRGINIA.

1850-1.....	404,103	1837-8.....	246,063
1849-50.....	487,769	1836-7.....	222,540
1848-9.....	518,039	1835-6.....	236,733
1847-8.....	531,772	1834-5.....	216,888
1846-7.....	427,967	1833-4.....	196,413
1845-6.....	422,597	1832-3.....	194,412
1844-5.....	389,006	1831-2.....	173,800
1843-4.....	346,744	1830-1.....	182,142
1842-3.....	325,129	1829-30.....	126,512
1841-2.....	267,850	1828-9.....	118,853
1840-1.....	297,288	1827-8.....	129,593
1839-40.....	295,193	1826-7.....	149,513
1838-9.....	276,018		

It will be seen that we have materially *reduced* our estimate of the amount of cotton consumed the past year in the states south and west of Virginia—the capacity of the mills has been very nearly the same as before, but the high prices of the raw material for the greater part of the season, and the low rates obtained for the manufactured article, have rendered the business unprofitable. The following estimate is from a judicious and careful observer at the South of the quantity so consumed, and not included in the receipts. Thus in—

Mills.	Spindles.	Quantity consumed.
North Carolina.....30.....		13,000 bales, of 400 lbs.
South Carolina.....16.....	36,500	10,000 " "
Georgia.....36.....	51,400	13,000 " "
Alabama.....10.....	12,500	4,000 " of 500 lbs.
Tennessee.....30.....	36,000	8,000 " "
On the Ohio, &c.....30.....	100,000	12,000 " "
Total to Sept. 1, 1851.....		60,000 bales.
" " 1850.....		107,500 "
" " 1849.....		110,000 "
" " 1848.....		75,000 "

To which should be added the stocks in the interior towns, &c., the quantity burnt in the interior, and that lost on its way to market; these, added to the crop as given above, received at the shipping ports, will show very nearly the amount raised in the United States the past season—say, in round numbers, 2,450,000 bales.

During the year just closed there have been received here, chiefly, it is believed, from Tennessee, 797 bales by way of the New-York and Erie Canal, which we have added in another place to the crop of the country. This route, however, is not a favorite one, and no further supplies of moment are expected.

It may be remarked in this connection, that some of the cotton received overland at Philadelphia and Baltimore is doubtless unaccounted for elsewhere, not being counted in the receipts at New-Orleans; but as we have of late years omitted this item from the crop, in deference to the views of judicious friends, it is not now added, though it may be advisable to introduce it hereafter.

The quantity of new cotton received at the shipping ports up to the 1st inst., amounted to about 3,200 bales, against about 255 bales last year.

The shipments given in this statement from Texas are those by sea only; a considerable portion of the crop of that state finds its way into market via. Red River, and is included in the receipts at New-Orleans.

2.—STATISTICS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We are indebted to a friend for a copy of a valuable work that has just been published in London, on the Statistics of Great Britain. It furnishes information of a truly interesting character. We proceed to notice a few of its most important statements.

Property in the soil of the United Kingdom.

Annual rental of the land of Great Britain	£45,753,610
Rental of the land in Ireland	17,618,876
Value (according to 80 years' purchase) of the land in Great Britain and Ireland.....	1,901,144,760
Poor rates of England and Wales	5,271,264
Farmers' live stock, dead stock, wages, and supplies	604,833,730

Produce of the soil of the United Kingdom.

Wheat, annual value	£73,059,700
Barley	30,888,000
Oats	62,302,000
Potatoes	51,800,000
Gardens	31,600,000
Straw	108,593,462
Turnips	36,400,000
Hay, clover, rye, grass, and the meadows.....	78,750,000
Best pasture	106,250,000
Tares, chicory, carrots, &c.	19,800,000
Grazing, second class pasture	58,500,000
Natural grazing, rivers, sites, towns, &c.	7,380,470

Forests, trees, &c.	16,000,000
Hops, flax, and hemp	5,500,000
Lime, stone, bricks, and clay	24,000,000
Iron, coal, lead, tin, copper, salt, &c.	50,000,000

Grand total of the produce of the soil of the United Kingdom, 670,524,132

Investment of capital.—Estimated capital vested in the following branches of business.

Capital vested in land	£3,109,778,940
Do. do. in cultivating land	604,833,730

3,714,612,670

Do. do. cotton trade	£45,000,000
Do. do. woollen do.	38,000,000
Do. do. linen do.	12,000,000
Do. do. silk do.	12,000,000
Do. do. leather do.	15,000,000
Do. do. iron, hardware, and cutlery	30,000,000
Do. do. copper and brass trade	3,700,000
Do. do. coal trade	18,000,000
Do. do. glass, china, &c.	8,000,000
Do. do. paper, books, colors, &c.	10,000,000
Do. do. spirits, porter, &c.	37,000,000

228,700,000

The Iron trade of the United Kingdom.

The value of that which is consumed at home, is estimated at the declared value of that which is exported.

	Tons.
Imported 1847	33,317
Made 1847	1,999,608
Total for use	2,132,925

	Tons.
Pig Iron exported	176,036
Wrought do. (bar, bolt, &c.)	378,673
Hardware and cutlery, do.	20,615
	570,324

Remain for home use 1,462,601

Divided thus:

Wrought and unwrought	1,059,608
Hardware and cutlery, do.	402,993
	1,462,601

Wrought and unwrought, home use 1,059,608	at £958=	£10,151,544
Hardware and cutlery..... 302,192	at 1,136	45,780,000

Total home consumption	55,931,544
Total value exported	£7,607,760
Of which to British possessions	1,236,522

Leaves for foreign parts	6,371,238
British consumption	57,168,066
Add foreign	6,371,238

Value iron trade, 1847 63,539,304

REMARKS.

The whole material is the produce of the British soil and British labor. Besides persons immediately employed in the greater branches of the manufacture

(47,554 are engaged in mining.) 323,681 individuals in Great Britain are engaged in different trades of which iron is the staple.

The export to the home consumption is only about *one-tenth*. In 1846 — 147 tons iron were manufactured into 300,000,000 steel pens, which, at the value of one eighth of a penny each, would amount to £166,250.

3.—PROGRESS OF NATCHEZ, MISS.—EDUCATION.

It is an undeniable fact, well known to those who wish to purchase a house in Natchez, or even to hire a tenement, that real estate in Natchez has had a gradual advance for the last three years; and is now, at the present moment, fully thirty per cent. higher than in 1846 and '47. What is the reason? There is no new source of commerce in Natchez; no new manufactures established. The hotels are less crowded than in the long-past, disastrous years of expanded credit; and the whole trade from abroad, whether by foreign or domestic traffic, discloses no good reason why there should be this steady and increasing advance in the value of real estate. What are the causes?

Natchez has become the city of education. No matter in what part of the uplands of Mississippi, or in the swamps of Louisiana, a planter may till the bounteous soil; he has only to have a family residence within the broad limits of Natchez to entitle his children to a Free School Education, as complete and as thorough as that in the oldest cities of the United States. A trifling tax on taxable property, scarce felt by the payers, added to the munificent donations of Alvarez Fisk, Esq., and the Natchez Mechanical Society, has been the means of raising the value of real estate from one end of the city to another. Nor is this all: The best private seminaries abound, quite as many and even more abundant than before the creation of the Natchez Free School Institute.

4.—TOPOGRAPHY, SANATORY CONDITION AND VITAL STATISTICS OF MOBILE, ALA."

Mobile is situated on the west bank of the Mobile River, just before it empties itself into the Mobile Bay. The site is but slightly elevated above the level of the river, but sufficiently so for all purposes of convenient drainage. The soil is dry and sandy. Immediately opposite the city, on the east, is a large low island, covered with high grass and rushes, and known as the "Marsh." Immediately above the city, on the north, is a large swamp, extending along the banks of the river. Back of the city, on the north-west, west and south, the dry, sandy pinehills commence, affording delightful and healthy retreats from the heat, sickness and annoyances of the city, during the summer; and thus have sprung up the pleasant villages of Toulminville, Spring Hill, Cottage Hill, Summerville and Fulton. South of the city, the shores of the bay are dotted for many miles with the residences of our citizens. These spots have been found usually exempt from the visitations of epidemic disease.

The city is not compactly built, except in the portions occupied by the commercial and business houses.

The streets generally are wide, and run mostly north and south, east and west. Much attention, of late years, has been paid to planting shade trees along the pavements, and the comfort, and probably the health of the city, is much improved thereby.

The prevailing winds, during the winter months, are the north and north-east. From the middle of April, (at which time the warm spring weather commences,) the south winds, cool, refreshing, and laden with the moisture of the extensive waters of the gulf and bay, make the heat quite endurable.

No system of under-ground drainage has ever been attempted in Mobile. From the light and porous character of the soil, however, the streets soon dry after the heaviest fall of rain.

The city is supplied with good spring water through the City Water Works, from a stream some few miles distant. The climate of Mobile is warm and relaxing to the energies, and during even the winter months is trying to the constitution from the many and sudden changes that occur. The spring and fall are delightful seasons. During the coldest weather in winter the ground is but seldom frozen.

Most rain, I think, falls in December and January, and June and July.

There are in Mobile two hospitals, large, commodious, and well-ventilated buildings, situated in the western part of the city,—the United States Marine Hospital, and the City Hospital. They are each capable of accommodating between two and three hundred patients. Their location is an admirable one, being situated on a dry, elevated spot, with but little near them to obstruct the breezes from the bay.

There are several institutions of a charitable character in the city, among which may be mentioned the Catholic and Protestant Orphan Asylums; the Benevolent Society, which, besides other objects of charity, has charge of the destitute widows of the city; and the Samaritan Society, which does an immense deal towards alleviating the suffering and distress of the indigent poor.

The want of a lunatic asylum and a workhouse is sadly felt, and the urgent necessity for such institutions is becoming more and more apparent each year.

There are three cemeteries, which, from their location, can exert but little influence upon the public health.

The sanitary condition of the city has undoubtedly improved within the last few years. For many years Mobile enjoyed the unenviable reputation of being a very unhealthy place, and the devastating epidemics of 1819, '25, '29, '37, '39 and '43, in truth, gave a coloring to this accusation. Since the last-mentioned year, there has been no severe visitation from the destroyer. We may account for this, in some measure, by the fact that the wet, muddy morasses, filled with rushes and stubble cane, which, until 1843, occupied nearly the entire northern portion of the city, have been filled in, and their places are now the sites of large cotton warehouses and presses; a better system of drainage has been resorted to in the principal streets; and, lastly, more exertion has been made by the municipal officers to carry into effect the prudent suggestions of the Board of Health.

There are but very few deaths that occur from any of the usual forms of endemic fever; in fact, the diseases of that character seem to have lost almost entirely the dread which a few years since they inspired. The greatest mortality for the last four or five years back, has been from enteric affections. The deaths from diarrhœa and dysentery have exceeded greatly the mortality from any other disease of an acute character. These diseases have not been confined so entirely as formerly to the spring and summer months, but have occurred throughout the year, and, at all seasons, have been occasionally of a very unmanageable character. The following table will show the entire number of deaths in Mobile for the years 1845 to 1850, inclusive:—

Years.	Population.	Whites.	Blacks.	Deaths.
1845.....	12,000.....	320.....	122.....	442
1846.....	12,000.....	339.....	144.....	483
1847.....	13,000.....	433.....	175.....	608
1848.....	15,000.....	566.....	239.....	806
1849.....	17,000.....	633.....	273.....	910
1850.....	20,000.....	437.....	178.....	611

During this period the yellow fever prevailed but one season, the summer and autumn of 1847, and there were seventy-six deaths from the disease that year. In 1848 and 1849, the cholera and its kindred affections swelled the mortality somewhat. The scarlet fever, during the winter of 1848 and 1849, and the spring of 1849, prevailed to a great extent, and numbered among its victims many adults. The mortality from this disease in 1848 was 75; in 1849 the mortality from the same cause was 50. These remarks will explain the large apparent increase in the mortality in 1848 and 1849. In 1850 there was no epidemic of a fatal character. The dengue fever prevailed to a very great extent during September and October of this year, but there was no fatality attending it.

In 1845, with a population of 12,000, and a mortality of 442, the deaths were 36.5-6 in every thousand living; in 1850, with a population of 20,000, and a mortality of 611, the deaths were 30.5 in every thousand living. These two years were both considered healthy years. There was no epidemic visitation

either year of a fatal character; we may therefore infer from these facts that the sanatory condition of the city has improved during this time.

The average annual mortality of

London, with its population of	2,000,000, is	44,700
Paris, do.	1,000,000, is	23,500
New-York, do.	440,000, is	23,400
Philadelphia, do.	400,000, is	14,000
New-Orleans, do.	125,000, is	7,954
Mobile, do.	20,000, is	611

These figures would give a mortality for

London, of one in every	44 living.
Paris, do.	42 "
New-York, do.	19 "
Philadelphia, do.	27 "
New-Orleans, do.	15 "
Mobile do.	32 "

Thus showing that the percentage of deaths is actually less in Mobile than in any of the named American cities.

The annexed table will show the number of each class—whites and blacks, males and females—who have died in Mobile from 1845 to 1850, inclusive.

	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	Total.
Males	279	324	396	536	590	396	2511
Females	163	159	212	267	329	220	1350
Whites	320	339	443	566	637	433	2728
Blacks	123	144	175	239	273	173	1131
Total	442	483	608	805	910	611	3859

One is struck immediately with the great disproportion exhibited by this table, between the mortality of the males and females. Very nearly the same disproportion probably exists in the relative population, and the greater degree of exposure and the various excesses committed by the males, will probably account for much of the excess.

In the following table I have adopted the classification of J. C. Simonds, M. D., of New-Orleans. By it all causes of death are included under three divisions; these are subdivided into nineteen classes. The three divisions are called:—1st, Zymotic Diseases; 2d, Sporadic Diseases; and 3d, External Causes of Death. The first division embraces epidemic, endemic and monoxymal diseases. The last class, *monoxymal*, refers to those diseases which affect individuals but once, such as smallpox, scarlet fever, &c.

The second division—sporadic diseases—is the standard for comparing the mortality of different races, sexes and individuals; it is divided into thirteen classes, ten of which relate to diseased organs, or system of organs, one for diseases of a variable or uncertain seat, one for deaths from old age, and one for the still-born.

The third division—external causes of death—contains three classes:—1st, Casualties; 2d, Exopathic, signifying injuries inflicted by another person; and 3d, Eeopathic, applied to self-inflicted injuries, such as suicide, intemperance, &c.

The second of these classes shows the estimation in which life is held and the respect for the laws; the third is a standard of the morality of a community.

This table has been prepared with much labor, and is as nearly accurate as it can be, the sextons' report of interments in the several cemeteries having been taken as the groundwork for it.

CLASSIFIED TABLE OF DEATHS IN MOBILE.

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CLASSIFIED TABLE OF DEATHS IN MOBILE, FROM 1845 TO 1850, INCLUSIVE.

	1845.				1846.				1847.			
	WHITES.		BLACKS.		WHITES.		BLACKS.		WHITES.		BLACKS.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
TOTAL.....	208	112	71	51	242	97	82	69	285	148	111	64
Unspecified.....	22	18	17	14	32	6	12	14	41	25	24	1
Specified.....	186	94	54	37	210	91	70	48	244	123	87	50
A. Zymotic.....	13	11	6	10	57	50	11	9	67	48	11	9
B. Sporadic.....	133	78	39	26	147	33	63	46	140	69	57	37
C. External causes.....	40	5	9	1	38	8	6		47	6	19	4
I. Epidemic diseases.....									48	28	2	
II. Endemic diseases.....	11	3	4	7	33	7	12	4	13	5	5	3
III. Monoxysmal diseases.....	3	6	2	3	5	7			3	4	5	1
Diseases of												
IV. A variable seat.....	20	2	4	4	12	3	8	10	11	5	5	2
V. Nervous system.....	28	10	4	1	32	14	10	7	17	15	14	12
VI. Respiratory system.....	38	26	13	12	36	18	19	13	44	23	10	10
VII. Circulating system.....	3	2	2	1	6	1			8	1	2	
VIII. Digestive system.....	26	20	7	5	38	17	12	11	64	20	15	8
IX. Urinary system.....			1		2				1			
x. Males.....					1				1			
xi. Females.....		5		1	1		1			3		
XII. Locomotive system.....		2		1	3	1			1		1	1
XIII. Integumentary do.....												
XIV. Organs of sense.....												
XV. Old age.....		1	5	2	2	2	3	2	3	1	6	1
XVI. Still-born.....	6	4	3		9	3	3	10	10	6	6	
XVII. Casualties.....	27	1	7	1	17	4	4		28	2	14	1
XVIII. Exopathic.....		1	1		2		1		4		3	3
XIX. Esopathic.....	10	3	1		19	4	1		15	4		

	1848.				1849.				1850.			
	WHITES.		BLACKS.		WHITES.		BLACKS.		WHITES.		BLACKS.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
TOTAL.....	394	169	142	98	406	231	174	98	396	137	98	53
Unspecified.....	63	29	17	13	62	53	24	20	38	23	16	16
Specified.....	331	140	125	85	344	178	150	78	258	114	82	67
A. Zymotic.....	72	98	26	17	129	41	54	14	19	3	3	4
B. Sporadic.....	213	38	87	62	163	133	82	59	201	106	75	61
C. External causes.....	46	4	12	6	52	4	14	5	36	5	14	2
I. Epidemic diseases.....					71	2	46	3				
II. Endemic diseases.....	41	55	11	3	44	15	4	4	11	2	1	2
III. Monoxysmal diseases.....	31	43	15	14	14	18	4	7	3	1	2	2
Diseases of												
IV. A variable seat.....	22	3	9	4	15	17	8	4	22	13	6	8
V. Nervous system.....	29	14	23	9	36	18	24	9	26	15	13	426
VI. Respiratory system.....	46	23	20	18	41	28	16	17	48	21	7	17
VII. Circulating system.....	7	2	6	7	4	2	2	5	3			64
VIII. Digestive system.....	93	18	11	14	48	34	21	15	65	23	22	10
IX. Urinary system.....	1								2			7
x. Males.....												9
xi. Females.....		5		1		4			3		2	26
XII. Locomotive system.....	2		1	1	1	2		4				22
XIII. Integumentary do.....										2	1	2
XIV. Organs of sense.....												00
XV. Old age.....	2	1	11	2		26	2	8	2	1	5	6
XVI. Still-born.....	12	12	9	6	10	6	6	5	20	15	6	4
XVII. Casualties.....	23	9	3	23	2	7	4	28	2	10	1	218
XVIII. Exopathic.....	1	1	2	2	3	1	2		4	1	1	36
XIX. Esopathic.....	22	3	1	1	26	1	5	1	6	3	3	1

TOTAL OF
EACH CLASS
OF DISEASE.

In examining this table, we find by far the greater number of deaths caused by diseases of the digestive and respiratory organs. The mortality from the former class has been very great since 1848, which was the year that the cholera first made its appearance in our midst.

The mortality denoted by the class monoxymal was chiefly from scarlet fever in 1848 and 1849, and was a wide-spread and fatal disease.

The colored population exceed the whites in longevity. The number of blacks dying from old age is nearly double that of the whites. Many of these instances of longevity are among the slaves owned by our Creole population. They seem to be almost entirely exempt from the attacks of yellow and bilious fevers. Their imprudent habits and constant exposure, however, render them peculiarly susceptible to attacks of cholera and its kindred affections.

(Fenner's Southern Medical Reports.)

5.—THE SOUTH AND THE NORTH.

The returns of the census, says the Southern Press, are vindicating the institutions of the South in the most triumphant manner. The following are a few items concerning Georgia:

POPULATION.	
Whites.....	526,417
Blacks.....	382,294
	<hr/> 908,711
Value of real and personal estate.....	\$334,660,217
Amount of State tax.....	328,247 18
“ county “.....	170,803 53
	<hr/> \$499,050 53

Number of deaths for the year preceding 1st June, 1850.....9,099

The mortality of the whole population in 1849-50, was one in 91 1-2.

The white population of Georgia is about one-sixth of that of the State of New-York. Yet Georgia has nearly half the property. Hence a white person in Georgia is on an average nearly three times as rich as one in New-York. Even if slaves are excluded from the property of Georgia, she is wealthier in proportion to white population than New-York. And then the health of Georgia is vastly superior. Out of a total population of 908,711, the deaths in a single year were 9,099. In the single city of New-York, with about half that population, they were about 18,000, or nearly double. Hence the average mortality of the city of New-York is four times as great as that of the state of Georgia.

The taxation of Georgia, state and county, is about half a million—that of New-York exceeds seven millions. Hence the taxation of Georgia, compared to that of New-York on the basis of population, is less than one-fourth, on the white basis is less than one-half—on the property basis is less than one-sixth! Yet with this overwhelming evidence of the superior, social, political and financial condition of Georgia, she is excluded by New-York from a common territory, as immoral and unthrifty, and—submits!

6.—THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC AND NEGRO CIVILIZATION.

A writer in the New-York Journal of Commerce furnishes the following interesting and important information, in relation to the Republic of St. Domingo, in the island of Hayti:

“The island of St. Domingo formerly belonged, the eastern part to Spain, the western part to France. Under a low system of morality, a considerable population of free people of color had sprung up in the French part of the island when the French revolution began. One of the early results of that revolution was the decree of the Constituent Assembly of France, of the 15th May, 1791, declaring that men of mixed blood, of all shades, born of free persons, should be admissible to the colonial assemblies. This admission of free people of color to a political equality with themselves, was resisted by the white inhabitants, who, rather than

submit thereto, made proposals to Sir Adam Williamson, then Governor of Jamaica, to place the island, or rather the French part of it, under British protection. Their propositions were accepted, and a British force sent to occupy the posts of Jeremi and St. Nicolas Mole. Santhonax, the French commissioner, alarmed at the prospect of the colony falling into the hands of Great Britain, proclaimed the general emancipation of all the slaves. This was followed by a coalition of the free people of color with the blacks, to murder and drive out the whites. The atrocities committed on tottering age, helpless infancy, and feeble womanhood, have given to the island a terrible interest.

The people of color, who united with and encouraged the blacks in these atrocities, have since met with their merited punishment in the oppression, banishment, and massacre of which they have in turn become the victims.

It is a great error, into which many have fallen, to suppose that the inhabitants of the eastern or Spanish part of the island, had any part in these scenes of vice and crime, and which have rendered infamous the very name of that beautiful island. Those excesses were confined entirely to the French part. The Spanish part of the island remained undisturbed, and, until 1821, in quiet submission to Spain, of whose colonies it was, in climate, soil and mineral productions, perhaps the most valuable, though most neglected. Overlooked and neglected by the cabinet at Madrid, and their only source of prosperity, their commerce with the other Spanish American colonies, being cut off by the revolt of those colonies, in December, 1821, the Dominicans declared their independence of Spain, and, hoisting the Colombian flag, sent commissioners to ask admission as one of the states of the Colombian Republic. That Republic was at that time too much engaged in the organization of its own government and affairs at home, to attend to the application of the Dominicans. Spain, engaged with her other colonies, left the Dominican revolutionists to themselves. Boyer, then President of Hayti, under pretence of marching to their assistance, took possession of the country. The Dominicans, few in number and unprepared for resistance, were compelled to submit, and found that they exchanged the neglect and the restrictive commercial policy of Spain, for the far more oppressive tyranny of the blacks. Under this yoke they suffered till 1843. In that year, driven by desperation, a few persons, not over a hundred, rose in the night and took possession of the principal gates of the city of St. Domingo. By the influence of some of the foreign residents whose sympathies were with them, and who went between them and the Haytian garrison in the citadel, exaggerating their numbers and strength, the garrison was induced to surrender before morning came to disclose the weakness of the movement. As fast as the unexpected news spread through the country, the Dominicans flocked to the standard of independence, drove out the Haytiens, and established a republican form of government.

The Dominican Republic contains from 150,000 to 200,000 souls. The Haytiens number from 800,000 to 1,000,000. The latter admit no white person to hold any real estate, or enjoy any of the privileges of a citizen. The former is essentially a white government, with about the same intermixture of other blood as in the Spanish Main and Brazil. The government always has been, and still is, in the hands of the whites. The immigration of blacks is prohibited, and white colonists are invited by grants of lands, the government paying their expenses and subsistence till established in their new homes.

The Dominicans have made repeated applications to the United States to interfere, to put an end to the invasions of the blacks. Learning that such an application had been made, the English, to anticipate the tardy action of our slower-moving government, proffered their mediation. The Dominicans, suspicious of the negrophily of England, hesitated to accept the offer, lest their doing so might afford a pretext for English influence to compel them to submit to the black Emperor Soulouque. The offer was therefore accepted only on the condition that the United States and France should join in the mediation.

The celebrated society of the "Amis des noirs," was established about the commencement of the French revolution, for the purpose of ameliorating the condition of the black population in the West Indies. Its leading members were Brissot, Petion, Mirabeau, Claviere, Condorcet, and most distinguished of all, the Abbe Gregoire. To their misdirected zeal may be attributed all the crimes and horrors which have desolated the island of Santo Mingo, reduced its inhabitants

to a condition of slavery far worse than that which it was proposed to improve, and plunged them again into barbarism and idolatry.*

This society still exists in Paris, largely increased in numbers and influence, and acts in concert with the abolition societies of Great Britain and the United States. Adopting their views of humanity—that it is much better that the Haytiens should have undisputed possession of the whole, than that the island should be divided; between two constantly conflicting governments, England and France have been for some time endeavoring to procure the submission of the Dominicans to Soulouque. We have recently been informed that this view of the subject has also been adopted by the Government of the United States, and that a special agent is about to sail in the *Saranac* to unite with the French and English agents to accomplish this object.

If these rumors be true, and the Dominican Republic should thus be fused down into a province of the Haytien Empire, past experience plainly points out what will be the unhappy fate of its white inhabitants.

7.—MEMPHIS.—HER GROWTH AND PROSPECTS.

A correspondent of the *Nashville-Union*, writing from this place, gives the following glowing, though truthful picture, of the rapid growth, business and prosperity, of this young and thriving city:

MY DEAR SIR:—As I am detained here a few hours, I have devoted four of them to looking about this wonderfully progressing city, and the balance of the fifth I will employ in giving you a brief result of my observations. What I am about to say will be in praise; and I know, like a beautiful belle, your Nashville can afford to hear and endure the praises of a rival. It is only the *inferior* that turns up the pretty nose when the attractions of another are spoken of with approbation.

With this introduction, I will commence my letter by saying that Memphis is one of the most flourishing cities in the western valley. When, in 1830, I first stopped at this place, I went up into the town, and found a short street of one story wooden buildings facing the river, two or three short cross streets running back a hundred yards, on which were some score or two of shanties, chiefly occupied as gaming houses, drinkeries, lawyers, doctors, and constables' offices. There was not a good building in the place; and not five hundred people, black, white, and yellow, if one might judge by the appearance of things. But Memphis now begins to deserve, with more propriety, the proud name of Egypt's capitol that she has taken to herself. Nearly a league before arriving at the city, in descending the river, we saw it crowding the alluvial bluff, stretching away north and south for a mile and a half, presenting an imposing front of lofty brick warehouses and stores to the eye, with a stately towering above the roofs of cupolas, domes, and steeples. The whole *coup d'œil* was striking, and impressed the mind with a sense of commercial dignity.

Upon landing, we found that scores of men were at work cutting away a cliff of earth, and forming a noble glacis in front of the town, which, when completed, will not be equalled in the West. The bustle upon the landing reminded me of some of the busiest portions of the levee in New-Orleans; but on reaching the broad esplanade that extends the whole length of the city front, six hundred feet wide, and seeing it covered with countless wagons as far as the eye could reach, loading and unloading cotton and merchandise, I stood still with amazement to contemplate so novel a scene. It was a sight such as I never beheld before in all its peculiar features. It seemed as if every wagon in the country for fifty miles around was in Memphis; and when I walked up the side walk in front of the stores, one would easily have believed that every stout yeoman, every whig and democrat who ever wore linsey-woolsey, and made four bales of cotton, was in town. For nearly a mile the crowd was as dense as that on the New-Orleans levees and streets, and every store seemed to be crowded with customers and overrun with business. I was perfectly taken by surprise at the signs of improvement and stable prosperity which I beheld. There were numerous well built

* Many of the blacks of Hayti have lapsed into idolatry, worshipping serpents and other *Fetiches*.

cross streets, and noble streets a mile long, running parallel with the Esplanade street; and the public buildings were of a character commensurate with the present and growing greatness of the city.

On extending my walk in the streets where the residences are, I was struck with their air of style and opulence, and great taste. Architecture seemed to have been studied by the Memphians. Some of their private residences are not surpassed in New-Orleans. On the whole, I was highly gratified with my tour of the city, and I must say that it bids fair to eclipse its present self, and ere long to hold a first rank with St. Louis or New-Orleans. The very men of business one sees all have that New-York step, eye, and the mercantile "cut of the jib," which marks a larger city. I saw no idlers; no young men lounging at the corners with nothing to do; but all was driving and animating. When you get your rail-road to Memphis, and to Louisville, to Charleston, and to the mouth of the Ohio, and turn your dead capital into the manufacturing channel, your city will march on side by side with Memphis. Her superiority to you is in her ever navigable river. Your rail-roads are to be ever navigable rivers to you. By means of them you can advance in wealth and importance, till Tennessee shall boast *two* of the noblest cities in the great West. The Cumberland cannot be depended upon. It has got to be as fickle as a weathercock. If it were thoroughly dry, a rail-road, as I need not tell you, run along its bed, would be of more benefit to your city than even if it kept full the whole season.

But, if I praise Memphis for its prosperity, I must express my surprise at the wretched condition of its streets. I never saw anything to come up to their horrid state. The story of the traveller's head being seen above ground, but who experienced no apprehensions of danger, "as he had a horse under him," might have been said here. Mud, muddier, muddiest! might be the first lesson in grammar taught the urchins with great propriety. In all my four hours' loiter about the town, I did not see five ladies, though the day was fine, and the air mild as May. The fact is, the ladies can't walk out here.—Where is the gallantry of that most gallant corps of cavaliers, the Memphian chivalry? Touching the neatness and walkable condition of the streets, Nashville takes the palm from Memphis. Your ladies, therefore, fill the streets like butterflies in green lanes of a May morning; and therefore it is that strangers, who can never see the ladies of Memphis, always go away from Nashville, carrying to the ends of the earth the report of the beauty of its females.

Yours truly,

E. F.

2.—INDUCEMENTS TO SETTLE OR TO INVEST CAPITAL IN TEXAS.

Texas being now the El Dorado of the Union, to which all eyes are turned, we feel it a duty to give our readers the benefit of all the information in regard to it which we can lay our hands upon. The paper we published in our June number has been read everywhere, with enthusiasm. We extract, at present, from the Western Texan:—

A deep sense of our obligation to contribute our mite to the advancement of the permanent interests of our favored state, will impel us to devote our columns in several succeeding numbers to an examination of both aspects of this important subject. The considerations which would lead the immigrant to fix his abode in our midst, would make it the interest, in many respects, of the capitalist to invest his funds, and both will exercise a reciprocal influence on the prosperity of each other, and upon the welfare of the state. Thus the actual settler, adding by his labor to the value of his land, and to the wealth of the country, will advance the interest of the capitalist in every enterprise, but especially in that vested in the soil. On the other hand, the facilities for the employment of labor, and the advance in the price of land, created by the means of the capitalist, reacts to the advantage of the settler. There is an appositeness, therefore, in considering both aspects of this subject together. The field we propose to travel over, in dwelling upon the inducements which Texas holds out to the settler and the capitalist, is so extensive that we cannot hope to occupy it in a few brief essays, and must therefore content ourselves with only touching upon the leading points of the case.

In the first place, Texas possesses eminent advantages in the extent of her territory. We have no certain data upon which to base an estimate of the superfi-

sies in our limits; but we extend from the upper Red river to the Rio Grande, and from the Sabine to New Mexico, with an area of something over two hundred thousand square miles, equal to four of the largest of the old states. Supposing the prosperity of the state, and the necessity for the means to fulfil the national faith, may require Texas to surrender to the United States the permanent or temporary possession of the northwestern section, as a separate territory for the Indians, (a proposition we shall advocate in a future essay,) we shall, nevertheless, have more than double the amount of any other state. So far then, as the influence of being the "Empire State of the South," in relation to territory, is calculated to gratify the pride or the ultimate destiny of the capitalist or settler, Texas presents such inducements. We know what New-York gains in all public movements, if not in all public enterprises, by claiming and receiving the character of the "Empire State." In the same proportion, if not in a greater, Texas may hope to be the leading, as she was once the "Lone Star" of the South. As a member of the National Confederacy, she will exercise the influence which will secure to her the rights and the patronage that all the large states have heretofore enjoyed; and if the extent of her territory may not inspire a laudable pride, she will still stand out in the history of the age, as covering all the ground claimed prior to the Florida treaty in 1819, as the southwestern limits of Louisiana, and thus be entitled to the glory of having reclaimed by her valor and enterprise what had been necessarily yielded of the rich treasure acquired for the great valley in the treaty of 1803, by the sagacious statesmanship of Jefferson and Monroe.

In the second place, Texas offers eminent inducements in her climate. No consideration is, perhaps, more important to those seeking a country suitable for residence or enterprise than the character of its climate. Health is the first, and comfort the next great object in selecting a permanent abode. Tested by these qualities, Texas presents prominent inducements. Along the coast, wherever the position is free from stagnant fresh water, the most uninterrupted health prevails; and in the high table lands, commencing one hundred miles from the Gulf, and extending to the sources of the Trinity, Brazos, Colorado, Guadalupe, San Antonio, Leona, Perdiniales, San Saba, and Concho, the climate is as balmy and delicious as an altitude of five thousand feet from the sea gives in every district of the tropical region. The latitude, reaching from the 26th to the 34th degree, guarantees mild winters; and the altitude from the sea, as well as the cooling breeze from the Rocky Mountains, secures comfort and a moderate temperature during the summers. The delightful character of the climate is indeed becoming so generally known and appreciated, that already invalids are hastening thither from all the Northern and Middle States to reinvigorate their feeble constitutions. Northerners, it is true, sometimes contribute to the marring of this beautiful picture, though they continue but for a few days, and their uncomfortable effects are easily guarded against by suitable apparel and adequate houses. Some of the choicest fruits and grapes are indications of the climate. In our ancient city, founded as early as Philadelphia, we have as large and thrifty fig trees as may be found in the tropics, and our peach is unrivalled—our climate for that fruit resembling that of Persia, its native country. The grape, at present, if not originally indigenous to the country around the high plain of El Paso, on the Rio Grande, is beginning to attract the horticulturists from every part of our country, and its wine has as just a claim as any other to having been the "nectar" of the heathen gods. We regard Texas, then, on account of her favorable climate, as an inviting theatre for the enterprise of the immigrant and capitalist.

We resume the subject to which the brief remarks in our last paper was designed as an introduction, and proceed, in the third place, to consider Texas as presenting remarkable advantages in her agricultural capacities as a planting state, as a grain-growing state, and as a grazing state, and we shall speak of these interests in the order mentioned.

Our noble confederacy embraces in her limits so many degrees of latitude that the product of nearly every other country is capable of being cultivated in one or the other section of our widely-extended nation. The southern and southwestern states east of Texas are emphatically planting states, the middle states grain-growing, and the northern grazing. Some states, like Kentucky, Tennessee, and other states in the valley of the Ohio, have combined advantages in producing tobacco,

hemp, cotton, grain, and grass; and while Indian corn and wheat may be cultivated in the southwestern states, their great capacity is for cotton and sugar, leaving to the middle states the duty of furnishing them with both grain and grass, in the articles of live stock and breadstuffs. The northern states, characterized by an adaptation to the growth of the grasses, and a cold, stony soil, are enjoying a high degree of prosperity under the combined influence of *rail-roads* and *manufactures*; but it remains for Texas, although in the far southwest, to present the gratifying spectacle of a state which may be denominated the planting, grain growing, and grazing state; a triple source of power, not vouchsafed by a kind Providence to any other of her most favored sisters. If there be any peculiarity more remarkable than this, it is the curious fact that Texas, in the extreme south, and Minnesota, in the extreme north, both grow advantageously Indian corn, oats, and Irish potatoes.

Texas grows, with great facility, the two important exports of cotton and sugar, both of which are cultivated in the lands on the coast, and for one hundred miles up the principal rivers. The produce of each is heavier than in any of the states on the Mississippi, and is less subject to the blighting effects of frosts. When the projected system of internal improvements, as to rivers and rail-roads, shall open an easy access to the ports on the Gulf, the *planting* advantages will be apparent to the most casual observer, and thus inducements will be held out to the immigrant and capitalist from the warm climates of other countries. Sugar and cotton are both necessities of life, and the latter enters more largely than any other product of the soil into the commerce and business of the world. Texas is rich in these elements of power, and it is to be preferred to California, even though she has not her grain-growing and grazing capacities. Corn and oats grow luxuriantly, while cabbage, both kinds of potatoes, onions, and other vegetables, are reared with scarcely an effort in every district of the State. Fifty to seventy bushels of corn are frequently the annual product of the lands, and attest by an infallible process the virgin fertility of the soil. As yet, manure is rarely used, and the mode of cultivation is far behind the practice adopted in the other states. We can scarcely approach to a probable conjecture of the great amount of production, when scientific and practical husbandry shall be applied to a rich soil, blessed by an ameliorating climate. We could dwell with delight upon this branch of the subject, involving, as it does, a consideration of what may be justly regarded as the *true mines* of this and other states, the *soil well cultivated nine inches below the surface*; but, in view of the comprehensive arguments in favor of Texas, our limited space requires us to pass on to her peculiar advantages as a *grazing state*.

The beneficence of her climate, operating upon a soil of unsurpassed fertility, must render Texas the garden spot of our favored country. In Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, and the vast Northwest, nearly two-thirds of the year is devoted to an unremitting effort to provide the necessary food for the live stock during the winter. This effort involves an immense capital, severe and constant labor, and frequent exposure in the cold season to attend to the stock. These energies are bestowed, too, upon lands which cost from twenty to seventy dollars per acre, whilst Texas presents the beautiful picture of eternal pastures, which a beneficent Providence has prepared to her hands, and which needs not the labor and the capital necessary to put the woodlands of the Middle States into grass. "The cattle on a thousand hills" roam over these natural meadows, and require no care save that of salting, and herding in a period of northern. It is not possible to exaggerate the importance of Texas in her grazing capacities; for, while her lands are *rich and cheap*, her prairies are ever green, and mules and cattle may be reared at a price that would seem to be incredible to the grazier of the Middle States. The cotton and sugar planters on the coast, as well as the planters of the states on the Lower Mississippi, furnish a safe and profitable market for the mules and cattle reared in the table lands that may be readily purchased at one to five dollars per acre, and which, in their deep soil and mellow climate, are daily crying aloud to the rich as well as the poor of other countries, *come and occupy*.

We return with pleasure to the subject, an examination of which should stimulate the pride and awaken the interest of every citizen of the state. The development of our resources is calculated to afford matter of generous exultation, as well in relation to the future influence of the state as to her aptitude to become an enlarged field for enterprise and a dense population.

Texas is entitled to peculiar attention, in the fourth place, from the *cheapness of her lands*. The statistics of the several states rarely afford information of the price of their lands, though we hope the results of the recent census will contain these gratifying details. It is not to be doubted that they greatly exceed the price of the public domain, which, for a long period, was sold at \$2 per acre, but is now held at \$1 25. In numerous large districts in many states the price of land exceeds \$50 per acre, while along the coast of Texas, with the most luxurious soil devoted to sugar and cotton, the average price would not exceed, for the first, from \$4 to \$5, and the latter, from \$1 to \$3; and in the grain-growing and grazing region, embracing four-fifths of her territory, the price of improved lands would not average \$2 per acre, and millions of acres of unimproved located lands may be purchased at from 50 cents to \$2 per acre; and unlocated certificates may be had at the rate of 10 to 15 cents per acre, and the cost of locating, surveying, and patenting being added, would not cause the land to exceed 20 cents per acre. In no portion of the globe, and especially in a country of free institutions, are such *cheap and rich lands* to be obtained as in Texas. Independent of all other considerations, the richness and cheapness of her lands would lay deep and broad the foundations of her prosperity, and would render her citizenship an object of the first solicitude; but she has other magnificent sources of prosperity, in, fifthly, the *high price of her agricultural products*.

Sugar and cotton demand at the coast as much as at New-Orleans; and in many portions of the interior, corn brings from fifty cents to one dollar per bushel, the price of oats and vegetables being in the same proportion. In the district near to the line of military posts these prices will continue as long as the army is kept upon the frontier, and the troops will not be withdrawn probably until a treaty shall be made with the Indians, assigning to them a separate boundary, which will require in that event large supplies of provisions for their support. We count, therefore, upon the products of our agriculture commanding high and amply remunerating prices for several years to come, while the influx of population, as consumers, will greatly exceed the number of producers.

The *adequate rewards for labor* is intimately associated with the value of her agricultural products. Everywhere mechanical skill commands the best prices, opening an easy avenue to employment, and an ultimate freehold estate from the profits of labor. On the other hand, the cheapness of labor as connected with the management of live stock, arising from the employment of the population of Mexican descent, presents a palpable advantage to capitalists who may be disposed to purchase large tracts of land, with the view to the establishment of stock farms.

The *water power* of Texas enters largely into the estimate of her resources. The undulating regions of the New-England states scarcely furnish a more extensive water power than may be found in the rivers of Texas, especially from the table lands along her large streams, up to their sources in the mountains. The upper Brazos, with its tributaries; the Colorado, with its beautiful arms; the Concho, Llano, San Saba, and Pedernalles; the Guadalupe, with its San Marcos and Rio Blar co; the San Antonio, with its Salado, Cibolo, Leon, and Medina, and the Leona of the Nueces, are regarded as possessing eminent advantages in their power to propel machinery, and seem to have been providentially located in the vicinity of the great staple of cotton manufacturers.

Texas is eminently favored in exemption from the necessity of imposing high taxes. Her burden in this respect is so light that she scarcely feels it. Seven cents on the hundred dollars worth of property is in glaring contrast to the average tax imposed in the other states, where none pay less than twenty cents, and many exceed fifty cents, on the hundred dollars. In connection with the gratifying fact of her light taxes, it is a source of state pride to be able to say, that Texas has attained to a happy attitude in reference to her debt. By the surrender of her claim on the upper Rio Grande, which will perpetuate a record of her patriotism in contributing to the preservation of that richest of national blessings, *our glorious Union as a people*, she has secured the command of a fund which, in some form or other, must extricate her from debt. The wisdom of the next legislature will devise the mode by which the honor and interests of the people, as well as the wishes of her creditors, shall be satisfied, and the state will then be left to the accruing influence of her great resources in reaching the summit of her most ambitious prosperity.

Texas is capable of an extensive river navigation. In the present condition of her rivers, small steamboats may ascend from fifty to one hundred miles from the coast; and, when her proposed system of internal improvements shall be completed, boats may be expected to ascend during the greater part of the year upon an average of one hundred miles upon the Sabine, the Neches, Brazos, Colorado, Guadalupe, San Antonio, and Nueces; while on the northwestern border the Red River may be as useful as the perplexing obstruction in the raft below may permit; and for a great distance on the southern border, the Rio Grande is destined at no distant day to furnish a cheap and ready conveyance to the ocean. If Texas cannot compare in the length of her rivers with some of her sister states, she has eminent advantages in the number of these great arteries of trade, by which the products of the interior are conveyed to distant lands, and foreign goods are introduced to the homes of the settlers. But in her coast navigation and in her eligible seaports, she is far in advance of all the states in the valley of the Mississippi, and will compare favorably with many of the Atlantic States. Her seacoast extends from the mouth of the Sabine to the mouth of the Rio Grande, a distance, including the various inlets, of more than five hundred miles, affording valuable seaport towns at Sabine Bay, Galveston Bay, Matagorda Bay, and Arkansas Bay; while Louisiana has only one approach to the sea, and Alabama and Florida are the only southern and southwestern states that have a harbor in the Gulf of Mexico, the first at Mobile and the latter at Pensacola. When the seaport towns of Texas, and the noble bays in which they are embosomed, shall receive, as doubtless they will, their share of the national patronage in docks, breakwaters, and deepened channels, her commerce is destined to take rank with the energies and resources of the most prosperous states.

9.—UNITED STATES PUBLIC LANDS.

The following table shows the area of each state and territory wherein the land office is operating, with the amount of its surveys and the work yet to be done:

	Area of the states, sq. Miles.	Acres	Surveyed to September 30, 1850.	Unsurveyed to September 30, 1850.
Ohio.....	39,964.....	26,576,960.....	16,770,984.....	None.
Indiana.....	33,809.....	31,637,700.....	21,488,658.....	None.
Illinois.....	55,405.....	35,459,800.....	35,455,469.....	3,731.
Missouri.....	67,380.....	43,123,200.....	42,613,273.....	309,927.
Alabama.....	50,043.....	33,027,490.....	31,993,813.....	33,677.
Mississippi.....	37,337.....	23,895,628.....	23,895,628.....	None.
Louisiana.....	46,431.....	29,715,840.....	19,159,523.....	10,563,317.
Michigan.....	56,243.....	35,995,520.....	30,629,076.....	5,866,444.
Arkansas.....	52,193.....	33,406,720.....	33,201,425.....	205,295.
Wisconsin.....	53,924.....	34,511,360.....	16,169,498.....	18,341,862.
Iowa.....	50,914.....	32,584,960.....	19,196,106.....	13,388,854.
Florida.....	59,268.....	37,931,520.....	21,907,314.....	16,024,206.
Minnesota Territory.....	83,000.....	53,120,000.....	237,227.....	52,882,773.
N. West Territory.....	587,564.....	376,040,960.....	376,040,960.
Nebraska.....	136,700.....	87,488,000.....	87,488,000.
Indiana.....	137,171.....	119,789,440.....	119,789,440.
New Mexico.....	210,744.....	134,876,160.....	134,876,160.
Utah.....	187,933.....	120,270,720.....	120,270,720.
California.....	188,981.....	120,947,840.....	120,947,840.
Oregon.....	341,463.....	218,536,320.....	218,536,320.
Total.....	2,526,462.....	1,616,935,598.....	312,710,904.....	1,295,269,526.

The above table shows that in a few years all the lands in the new states will be surveyed and opened to settlers and preemption claims.

The following statement of the amount of lands, sold and located by Military Land Warrants, &c., in 1848 and 1849, and first three quarters of 1850, ex-

* Exclusive of Chickasaw lands.

hibits the decrease in cash receipts, and the increase for 1849 in the amount of funds disposed of:

	Acres.		
Sales in 1849.....	1,887,553	: 04	equal to \$2,621,615 26
Mexican war warrants.....	2,288,960	: 90	" 2,861,300 00
State selections, act 1841.....	378,058	: 57	" 472,573 21
Improvements rivers, &c.....	321,188	: 33	" 401,485 51
Choctaw certificates.....	57,240	: 10	" 71,571 37
Total acres.....	4,933,009	: 04	" \$6,428,435 35

	Acres.		
Sales in 1849.....	1,399,933	: 77	equal to \$1,756,890 42
Mexican war warrants.....	3,405,510	: 00	" 4,256,900 00
State selections, act 1841.....	359,806	: 60	" 324,758 25
Improvements rivers, &c.....	135,246	: 21	" 169,057 76
Choctaw certificates.....	53,935	: 33	" 67,419 16
Total acres.....	5,184,410	: 91	" \$6,575,025 59

	Acres.		
Sales in the three quarters in 1850.....	869,082	: 39	equal to \$1,129,186 50
Mexican war warrants for 1st, 2d, and part of } 3d quarter.....	1,520,120	: 00	" 1,900,150 00
State selections, for 1st, 2d, and part of 3d quarter.....	379,803	: 58	" 474,754 47
Choctaw certificates.....	46,360	: 52	" 57,350 65
Total acres.....	2,815,366	: 49	" \$3,562,041 62

From this statement it will be perceived that the aggregate amount of land disposed of in 1849 considerably exceeds that of 1848. There is a falling off in the current fiscal year, caused probably by emigration to the Pacific, the extensive reservations for the rail-road from Chicago to Mobile, and the fact that most of the military warrants have been located, and the state selections disposed of.

Since the last annual report, over six millions of acres of lands have been brought into market, and about seven millions are now prepared for sale, and will be offered early in the ensuing season.

By careful examination, it is ascertained that the entire area of the public domain, exclusive of the lands in Oregon, California, New Mexico, Utah, the Indian and Nebraska Territories, was 424,103,750 acres.

About one-fourth of these lands has been sold and the purchase money received for it amounts to.....\$135,339,092

The cost of the whole of these lands, including the amount paid to France for Louisiana, to Spain for the Floridas, and amount paid for extinguishing the Indian title, was.....\$61,121,777

A portion only of these lands has been surveyed, the cost of which, including salaries of Surveyors-General and Clerks, and expenses attending the surveys, was.....6,369,838

Less than half the land surveyed has been sold, and the whole cost of selling and managing the same, including every expense not previously charged, is 7,466,324

Aggregate outlay of every kind.....74,957,879

Net profit to the Government.....\$60,381,218

Or an average of nearly one million and a quarter of dollars annually for the last fifty years.

If to this should be added the value of \$1 25 per acre of the land granted in bounties for military services and internal improvements, donations, &c., it would amount to nearly double that sum. This will be more fully appreciated when it

is understood that the average cost to the Government of acquiring title to the Public Lands, including the extinguishment of the title, is 14 41 cts per acre.

Do. of survey 2 07 " "
Do. of selling and managing 5 02 " "

Total average cost, \$21 4-5 cts per acre;
while for each acre sold the government gets \$1 25, or a net profit over
and above every cost and expense of \$1 03 15.100 per acre.

STATEMENT showing the condition of the State selections under the Act of 4th
Sept. 1841, on 30th day of June, 1850.

STATES.	No. of acres to which each State was entitled under the 8th Section of the Act of Sept. 4, 1841.	No. of acres ap- proved up to 30th. of June, 1850.	No. of acres to which each State was entitled on the 1st July, 1850, and to be selected and approved.
Illinois	209,085.50	208,980.05	105,45
Missouri	500,000.00	449,317.62	682.38
Alabama	97,499.17	none	97,469.17
Mississippi	500,000.00	498,835.53	1,164.47
Louisiana	500,000.00	355,870.41	144,129.59
Michigan	500,000.00	494,513.43	5,486.57
Arkansas	500,000.00	499,889.03	110.97
Florida	499,990.09	45,567.94	454,422.15
Iowa	500,000.00	172,394.86	327,605.14
Wisconsin	360,364.01	285,648.42	74,715.59
Aggregates	4,166,908.77	3,061,017.29	1,105,891.48

The several grants to the State of Indiana for the construction of the Wabash
and Erie Canal, amounting to about 1,400,000 acres, have all been selected, the
lands certified to the State, and closed upon the books of this Office.

10.—MINNESOTA.

We make the following extract descriptive of Minnesota, from a letter written by H. H. Sibley to Hon. H. Foote:

"The part of Minnesota which lies east of the Mississippi River, constituted a portion of Wisconsin Territory, before the admission into the Union of the state of that name, with curtailed boundaries. The St. Croix and a line drawn from the main branch of that stream to the mouth of the St. Louis River, on Lake Superior, now divide Wisconsin and Minnesota. On the west of the Mississippi, the parallel of 43 deg. 30 min. is the line of division between the state of Iowa and Minnesota west to the Missouri. All the country up the latter stream to its junction with the Whitewater, and along that river to the British possessions, thence westwardly following the line of 49 deg. to the intersection of the extreme northwest boundary of Wisconsin, in Lake Superior, appertains to Minnesota Territory. The area embraced between these limits contains between 140,000 and 150,000 square miles, equal in extent to New-York, Virginia and Pennsylvania combined.

This immense region is bountifully watered by the Mississippi, St. Peter's and Missouri rivers, and the Red River of the north, and their numerous tributary streams which traverse it in every part. There are also innumerable bodies of fresh water, which abound in fish of various kinds, the white fish especially being found in great numbers in the more northern and large lakes. The general character of Minnesota is that of high rolling prairie; but the streams and lakes are bordered with heavy bodies of timber which contain every species of wood known along the Mississippi below, except beach and sycamore. At a point about 8 miles above the Falls of St. Anthony, west of the Mississippi, commences a large and remarkable forest which extends to the south, nearly at a right angle across the Minnesota or St. Peter's River, to the branches of the Makato or Blue Earth River. This vast body of woodland is

more than one hundred and twenty miles in length, and from fifteen to forty in breadth. Many beautiful lakes of limpid water are found within its limits. In this beautiful country are to be found all the requisites to sustain a dense population. The soil is of great fertility and unusual depth, covered as it is with the mould of a thousand years. The Indian is here in his forest home, hitherto secure from the intrusion of the pale faces; but the advancing tide of civilization warns him that ere long he must yield up his title to this domain, and seek another, and a strange dwelling place. It is a melancholy reflection, that the large and warlike tribes of Sioux and Chippewas, who now own full nine-tenths of the soil of Minnesota, must soon be subjected to the operation of the same causes which have swept their eastern brethren from the earth, unless an entirely different line of policy is pursued by the government towards them. If they were brought under the influence and restraint of our benign laws, and some hope extended to them, that education and a course of moral training would, at some period hereafter, entitle them to be placed on an equality, socially and politically, with the whites, much good would be the result.

The soil of Minnesota is admirably adapted to the cultivation of all the cereal grains. Wheat, oats and barley afford a safe crop, even at the British Red river colony, which is in latitude 80.

Minnesota is destined to become a great agricultural region, and her prairies are well calculated for the raising of stock. There is also such an extent of water power throughout its broad surface, that no reason can be perceived why manufactures would not flourish also. The reports of those scientific men who have explored the country, justify us in the belief that our territory is rich in copper ores; and more particularly in galena or lead. Whether coal exists is a problem yet to be solved. If it shall be found in any considerable quantities, the discovery will be of more real advantage to Minnesota than the best mines of silver and gold.

On the upper portion of the Mississippi and St. Croix valleys lies the great region of pine, which will continue to prove a source of wealth to the territory and state for a century to come. The manufacture of pine lumber already occupies a large part of the industrial labor of the people. Much of this is needed for home consumption, caused by the rapid increase of population; but the larger portion is sent to St. Louis, where it meets with a ready sale.

The climate of Minnesota is not subject to sudden variations, especially in winter. Although, in some years, the snow falls to a considerable depth, yet, as a general rule, we have far less than is the case either in New-England, or the northern part of the state of New-York. The comparative absence of moisture in our country is attributable, doubtless, to the fact that no very large bodies of water are to be found, although, as I have before stated, small lakes abound. During the coldest weather in winter, the air is perfectly still; consequently the temperature is much more tolerable, and even pleasant, than could be supposed by those who reside in the same latitude on a stormy Atlantic coast.

The navigation of the Mississippi is not to be relied on after the first week in December, and steamboats arrive in the spring about the 10th or 12th of April, so that the river may be considered as closed about five months in the year.

St. Paul is the present capital of the territory. It is situated on the east bank of the Mississippi, about six miles below Fort Snelling, and eight miles by land from the Falls of St. Anthony. It is now a town of twelve or thirteen hundred inhabitants, and is rapidly augmenting in population.

Stillwater is a thriving village on lake St. Croix, about eighteen miles from St. Paul by land, and twenty-five miles from the Mississippi. It is second only to St. Paul in size, and is increasing steadily in wealth and population. There is also quite a village at the Falls of St. Anthony, which is one of the most lovely spots in the upper country, and also at Marine Mills on the St. Croix river, Sank Rapids, on the Mississippi, seventy-five miles above the falls, and at Mendota, at the mouth of the St. Peter's river. Point Douglass is at the junction between the Mississippi and St. Croix rivers. It is a charming place, and is destined to be the site of commercial importance.

Pembina is the name of a settlement on our side of the line of the British possessions, and contains upwards of a thousand souls, principally persons of a mixed

Indian and white blood. These people are active and enterprising, hardy and intrepid, excellent horsemen, and well skilled in the use of fire-arms. They subsist by agriculture and the hunting of Buffalo. They desire to be recognized as citizens of the United States, as do some thousands of their kindred, who now reside at Selkirk's colony in the British territory; but who are anxious to emancipate themselves from the iron rule of the Hudson Bay Company. These people are only waiting some action on the part of the government of the United States to join their brethren at Pembina. They would form an invaluable defence to that exposed frontier, either with the British government (to which they are much disaffected) or with the Indian tribes.

I might state in the connection that the Indians generally through our territory are kindly disposed towards the whites, and anxious to avoid a collision. This is emphatically the case with the Sioux and Chippewas.

I would remark in conclusion, that the people of our territory are distinguished for intelligence and high toned morality. For the twelve months or more prior to the establishment by Congress of a government for Minnesota, although in the anomalous position in which it was left by the admission of Wisconsin into the Union as a state, it was uncertain to what extent, if any, the laws could be enforced, not a crime of any magnitude was committed. The emigration to Minnesota is composed of men who go there with the well-founded assurance, that, in a land where nature has lavished her choicest gifts—where sickness has no dwelling place—where the dreadful cholera has not claimed a single victim—their toil will be amply rewarded, while their persons and property are fully protected by the broad field of law. The sun shines not upon a fairer region, one more desirable as a home for the mechanic, the farmer, and the laborer, or where their industry will be more fully requited, than Minnesota Territory.

11.—CULTURE OF UPLAND RICE.

A correspondent of the Pendleton (South Carolina) Farmer and Planter, communicates the following particulars of experiments in cultivating Upland Rice:

Say to Broomsedge, that some planters in Williamsburg planted their cotton lands all in rice last year, and tended in the same way as they would cotton, and were successful in a crop, and think it is better business than five or six cent cotton. I would say, for my own part, that rice is very easily made. Plant it from two to three and-a-half feet apart in drills, and keep the grass out of it. If seeded from the 15th of March to the 15th of April, there will be a good crop obtained, if the season is not too dry in August and September. When I say good crop, I mean from twenty-five to sixty bushels to the acre. The tide way of planting is quite different, because the lands are rich, and convenience of water makes it mature better. The tide-water growers plant from eight to fifteen inches in the drill, and sow at least two bushels to the acre. For our up country, from one peck to one-half bushel is quite enough. I made this year from two acres about seventy-five bushels of fine heavy rice—seeded and tended precisely as cotton.

Another writer says: Some four years since, I cleared a piece of land, through which there ran a branch in my skirts of land too wet for corn; on these necks I sowed rice, in rows where I could make them, and where too wet to make rows, I sowed broad cast, none of which received any culture and yielded a barrel of clean rice, at the rice mill of T. Gassaway, some six miles from Pendleton. My second effort was with the upland rice; I planted between the drills in my corn, (on land known here as second bottom) about three half pints; this was worked as my corn, the product one and a half bushels from the thrashing machine. My third effort was made this summer, both on lands rather wet for corn, and on that of the most elevated lands on my farm; I planted the wet lands in drills, three and a half by one foot, which was worked as my corn, and made as good rice as I have ever seen; that on the highlands was planted between the drills in my corn—it was feeble when young, and required care in its culture, yet I am of opinion it yielded more food for my family, than the corn of the same field.

The grain of rice is not all that is useful; the straw being soft, is easily cut by the knife, and masticated by the horse and cow, of which they are extremely fond. My mode of freeing the rice from the straw, is the same as that used in thrashing and cleaning wheat.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

GEN. JAMES JONES, OF SOUTH CAROLINA—MANUFACTURER.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 11.

GEN. JONES is another of those "useful" men who better deserve wreaths and laurels than all the helmeted and bannered knights—

"From Macedonia's madman to the Swede."

He is a Carolinian by birth, and though considerably under fifty years of age, may be said to be the pioneer and father of systematic manufactures in the South. With such a reputation, he will need no marble cenotaph, nor lungs of brass, to perpetuate his memory.

Gen. Jones is a graduate of the South Carolina College—that College which has given to the nation a McDuffie, a Preston, and a Legard—a glorious triad, whom the world will not willingly let die. He is a lawyer by profession, but in a state like South Carolina, which has been, in a large part of her history, revolutionary, and is at all times "armed cap a-pie" in defence of her liberties and her honor, the road to distinction will be found in the martial as well as the civic field. It is thus that the militia of the state have the character and discipline of a standing army, and its officers are educated to the highest rules of the military art. In this school Gen. Jones was entered at an early age. At 21 he held the post of Brigade Major; at 26, commanded a company of nullifiers, in the contemplated collision of the State and Federal powers; at 30, led the same company into Florida, in the service of the Federal power, in the campaigns of Gen. Scott. Soon after, he was appointed Quartermaster General of the State, with the rank of Colonel, and assisted Governor McDuffie in putting the encampment system into operation. From this post he was at once elevated to the Ad-

jutant and Inspector Generalship, with the rank of Brigadier General, which he held with great reputation and honor to himself, and service to the state during eight years.

Since this period Gen. Jones has been appointed Chairman of the Board of Visitors of the State Military Academies, and aided in the organization of those admirable institutions at Charleston and Columbia, which are on a limited scale, the West Points of the South, and which must bring forth many able engineers and officers in the service of the state and the country. Under a late law of the state, appointing a Board of Ordnance, which Mr. Webster has entitled the "Ministers of War," Gen. Jones was made a member of the Board.

But to return to his civic services, which are those only that give him a place in our gallery of the practical and industrial men of the South:

Soon after his resignation of the office of Adjutant and Inspector General, he purchased a moiety of the Vaucluse Factory establishment, and settled at Vaucluse to superintend its operations. In January, 1848, he purchased the other moiety.

Previously to 1841, the Vaucluse Factory had been under the management of hired agents, and was a losing concern to its owners; and at the time Gen. Jones took charge of it, he had never seen any other cotton mill.

He soon discovered that the machinery had been abused and neglected; that there was a total absence of order and system in its management; and above all, that the original proprietors had committed the mistake of getting up the establishment under the idea that its productions were to be sold to

the neighborhood, and therefore that all the cotton fabrics constituting the stock in trade of a country store, from muslin to cotton bogging, should be manufactured by it. Their notion was, to supply all the cotton goods of every kind to their own immediate section of the country, by the productions of one small mill. The consequence was, that in the attempt to get machinery to make *everything*, they got that which could make *nothing* well or profitably.

With such information as General Jones could get from books, and a visit to the Factories of Massachusetts and Rhode Island, he selected the fabric that he intended to make, (cotton Osnaburghs,) and went to work, repairing and changing the machinery so as to adapt it to that fabric; and reducing all the operations to a system, so as to have before him at all times a daily, weekly, and monthly record of the productions of the factory, and its cost per pound of each operation performed to the minute fraction of the thousandth part of a mill. The effect was soon visible. The production was doubled,

and the cost reduced 50 per cent. The common operatives became interested and attentive, and the overseers of rooms ambitious to make each week excel the preceding one and to turn off the greatest possible quantity at the least cost. His efforts were successful and satisfactory. The establishment, paid for itself in less than five years. It is still in successful operation under his immediate superintendence, the same machinery turning out fourfold the quantity it did in 1841, and the operatives receiving larger wages, yet producing the fabric at one-third the cost of that year!

General Jones is ever willing to extend the benefit of his own experience to others, and the books and tables of his factory are ever open to the inspection of every one desirous of advancing this branch of Southern industry.

Vaucluse may fairly be considered the mother of Graniteville, in which Gen. Jones is also a director and a stockholder, although the daughter has greatly outstripped the parent in size, beauty and grandeur.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

THE APPROACHING RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION AT NEW-ORLEANS.

We published in our September number the resolution providing for the call of this Convention, to be held on the first Monday in January next, and to which all of the Southern and Western States have been invited in the address of the Committee, which was also presented in our pages.

Whilst it will not be denied that in this movement New-Orleans has an eye to the promotion of her own schemes of public works, in which she proposes to connect herself more intimately with her neighbor states, nothing would be more unfair than to charge upon her exclusively motives of this character. She can and she will co-operate heartily and honestly with her sister cities in any enterprises which shall have a tendency favorable to them, in the conviction that whatever shall tend to the development of the resources and strength of this section

of the Union, must ultimately redound in some degree to her own benefit also.

In the particular instance of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, which has been pressed with such an indomitable will and energy, New-Orleans would make common cause with her sister city, since it is quite probable that an intersection with that road will be a matter of expediency, if not necessity, to both cities; the object of either being to reach the Ohio river, and that work is stupendous enough to draw for many years to the largest possible extent upon the resources of both. Neither city can hope to monopolize the fruits of such a road, but these fruits will be large enough to reward, in a princely manner, their efforts; and a generous co-operation, under all the circumstances, would be the wisest course of policy.

We should be pleased, therefore, to receive delegations from Mobile, and from points throughout the extent of her road. Such delegations, we are already advised, will in fact attend, having been appointed several months since. They will have a warm and hearty reception.

The great point, after all, for us at the South to aim at now, is to enlarge the area of our industrial pursuits, and diversify them in every possible manner; and we shall find the ready means of doing this in the construction of a system of rail-roads and other public works, throughout our midst. Why are we now nerveless, in debt, cramped at every point, without surplus for any purpose, but dependent upon foreign capital in our essays at improvement? We invest everything of labor, or skill, or wealth, that we possess, in the production of a single staple, which is forever at one or the other extreme. We are offered large and seducing prices when we have none of it to sell, but the very moment that our fields groan under their abundant weight—why then nobody is anxious to buy. Like John Randolph's Ohio River—it has either run dry or is frozen up.

The construction of a system of rail-roads at the South, in addition to its other advantages, will have this, that it will direct a large slave force into more profitable channels than that of agriculture. The planters will find inducements to employ a large portion of their labor in all the works of grading, embankment, bridging, cutting timber, etc. Indeed, by the employment almost of our surplus labor, we could achieve many important works, which would be so much clear gain to the wealth of the country. Many roads have already been undertaken upon this plan.

Upon whom are we now dependent for our manufacturing necessities? Does not the North realize, practically, more out of our cotton fields than we do ourselves? Her profits on the manufacture of this cotton cannot fall far short of 30 or \$40,000,000. In commerce, we depend upon her ships, which, on their own estimation in the carriage of Southern products, and their exchanges, realize annually \$40,000,000 more. Here are eighty millions of dollars that are

annually lost to the South, the largest part of which it would be in our power to save, were we truly aroused to our duties, and actuated by a high and liberal spirit of enterprise.

But this is not all. How much more does the North annually receive from us in the support of her schools and colleges, her writers and authors—her Saratogas and her Newporta? How much do her citizens, who come upon us yearly to garner wealth, return home with, to be expended there, and to build up those colossal interests which are becoming the wonder of the world? And this, too, without reciprocity; for who of the North reads a Southern book, or attends a Southern college, or visits a Southern watering place, or brings the accumulated earnings of years to invest in Southern improvements?

What a country would be ours, were this humiliating state of things reversed, and the South to assume her true position, as the equal, at least, and not the vassal, of these Northern lords. We should be respected and feared. We should dictate terms, and not, as now, supplicate them, in the shape of "platforms," and "compromises!"

"Who would be free, themselves must strike the blow."

However divided and distracted we may be throughout the South upon the subject of our political relations, there can be no two opinions upon that of our *physical and industrial independence*. Here is a platform, at least, thank God, upon which we can all unite—a *separate state action*, which even in the eyes of a consolidated government, could not be considered treason—that of *loom, spindle, and locomotive!*

"Let us then be up and doing,
With a heart for every fate;
Still resolving, still pursuing,
Learn to labor and to wait."

LOUISIANA AND TEXAS RAIL-ROAD.

MR. DE BOW:—The proceedings of your railroad convention, of the 4th June last, have been received here, and read with much interest. The only matter of surprise is, that New-Orleans has not taken steps in the enterprise long since. It is but 350 miles from the Trinity Valley to New-Orleans; and a finer country for a rail-road of

the same length does not exist in the world. It is almost a continuous level, and so continues to the Brazos, the Colorado, the Guadalupe, &c. It is one hundred and ten miles from the Trinity to the Colorado, making four hundred and sixty miles from New-Orleans around the Gulf west to the farthest navigable stream of any length in Texas. A railroad along this route, for this distance, would embrace in its trade the most magnificent farming country in the world; a country destined, in a few years, to send to market annually a million cotton bales, and sugar, cattle, hides, &c., in proportion. If this road were now built to the Colorado, its cost would be, say four millions six hundred thousand dollars. In five years, the nett profits of the road would pay for it. I do not speak of the dividends to stockholders, but the profits of the trade to those engaged. You can form no idea of the rapidity with which our trade increases. On the Trinity, for instance, during the boating season of '49, '50, two boats could not get employment; but during the season of '50, '51, five boats could not do the business; and the loss to our farmers, in not getting their cotton to market in time, was sufficient to have built twenty miles of the road.

The people of Texas, being mostly new comers, are poor, and have little capital other than good lands and labor. In a few years, they will grow rich, and be able to build roads; but, in the meantime, New-Orleans cannot wait for this, as trade will make other channels.

So soon as the details of your proposed convention shall be known here, meetings will be held, and delegates appointed from different sections to attend it. But, if they go, as they surely will, they will expect something besides talk and reports. The country is ripe for it—we cannot wait; we must have this outlet, or be compelled to seek another. We prefer New-Orleans. We are bound to her by the ties of locality, of similarity of institutions, and, also, by her deep interest taken in our revolutionary struggle. We have untold treasures in the soil of Texas, whose unfolding will be vastly stimulated by this road. Let the road be made, and we will be to New-Orleans what the Erie canal was to New-York, and more.

This road will be the beginning of further enterprise: it will extend west until stopped by the Pacific.

Respectfully, your ob't serv't,

H. Y.

Huntsville, Texas.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Our frequent absence from New-Orleans, during the months of August, September, and part of October, in the service of the Southwestern Rail-road Convention and improvements, will be an apology for whatever deficiency the reader may have marked in literary and editorial material. The same fault shall not be charged upon the December number.

The notes of our travel through Mississippi, Tennessee, Alabama, &c., are quite full, and we shall be enabled to prepare from them an interesting and instructive sketch, but too late for the present issue. For the thousand acts of courtesy and kindness we received on the way, no language could adequately express our gratitude.

Several valuable articles and communications are on our table, necessarily postponed until another month.

We entreat subscribers to be prompt in their remittances, now that crops are in market. We have not been urgent this year, but rest entirely upon their *generous promptness*. Orders on factors, in any southern city, will be received, or bank bills of any state. Those who desire to complete their sets have now no time to lose, as, in a very short time, such has been the extensive demand, we shall not have a single back number of this Review in the office.

FEMALE COLLEGE, ABERDEEN.

The object of this institution is to elevate and improve the standard of female education.

First, by making it more systematic, and rendering it more uniform, not leaving it to the whims of children and parents, or the caprice of teachers; but establishing a regular and systematic course of instruction, and requiring all who would receive the honorary degree of graduate, to complete this course. The course adopted is substantially the same as that in our male colleges, except that it is not so extensive in languages and mathematics; leaving time

and opportunity for the ornamental branches. In order to graduate, a knowledge of one language only is required, and the higher branches of mathematics, such as conic sections, analytical geometry and calculus, are omitted. A thorough knowledge, however, of algebra, is required, also a knowledge of geometry, and trigonometry, and logarithms, sufficient to enable pupils to understand the mode of making calculations in natural philosophy and astronomy. Secondly—by making it thorough. The degree of graduate shall be conferred only on those who are thorough scholars, capable of comparing with those of our best male colleges.

Integral education is aimed at—education physical, moral, intellectual, and religious. In connection with calisthenic exercises daily, and the training of the voice upon Dr. Rush's system, physiology and hygiene are studied. Every effort is made to promote a symmetric and healthy development of the whole person, to render every action natural, easy and graceful, and the voice sweet and full; and to establish habits of correct dietetics and hygiene generally, believing that by such a system of education, an average of at least twenty years of health and happiness may be added to the lives of those properly educated to observe the physical laws.

The number of pupils will be limited to two hundred, and those intending to take a full and thorough course will always have the preference.

Lectures are delivered weekly by the professors, in addition to those of the regular studies. We claim to have adopted a system equal to any in any part of the world.

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

1.—*Sketches and Statistics of Cincinnati in 1851*, by Charles Cist. W. H. Moore & Co. Cincinnati. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans, pp. 363.

This book is the successor of "Cincinnati in 1841," by the same author. It treats of Cincinnati in all its aspects, viz.: as regards its physical characteristics, personal statistics, education, social statistics, public authorities, monetary matters, water and artificial light, science and literature, fine arts, facilities of transportation and travel, necrology, public institutions, manufactures and industrial products, commerce, etc., etc. On all these particulars, full, and apparently carefully collected information is imparted. Besides this, there are given in the work

biographies of noted individuals, residents of the city, who "have been selected as types of the industrial and professional classes," and these biographies are accompanied by a portrait of each character delineated. There are, also, other engravings of an appropriate kind in the book. The publication is rich in statistics prepared with strict regard to accuracy in all respects. The articles, of more than local interest, were, many of them, written by some of the most skilful pens of Cincinnati; and impart additional value to the book. We should like to see similar publications respecting our own, as well as every city in the South.

2.—*Travels in the United States, etc., during 1849 and 1850*, by the Lady Emmeline Stuart Wortley. Harper & Brothers, New-York. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans, pp. 463.

The author of the interesting book lying before us not only travelled through the United States, but traversed Central America, and visited the western coast of South America, and the island of Cuba. The book consists, in the main, of letters written home to friends during her "excursion," which they prevailed on her, when she returned to England, to give to the world in a permanent form. These letters are written in an easy, graceful style, such as befits friendly correspondence, and give, in an off-hand manner, the impressions made at the moment by the objects which came successively into notice. The Travels are especially noteworthy, because they have met with great favor in America, a circumstance not usual with regard to the writings of English authors respecting the United States. This reputation is owing to the favorable manner in which Lady Wortley notices Americans and American institutions. Evidently, she is a lenient critic, and, as a traveller, willing, as every sensible traveller should be, to receive pleasure from all sources, even from those which might bring to the more fastidious only annoyance. It does one good to peruse such a light-hearted production. It makes one feel satisfied with himself, and with all the world. Lady Wortley's descriptions are, in general, well worth reading, as being at once unstudied and correct. She sees with the eye and depicts with the pencil of the painter. Read, and judge for yourselves, you that love the lighter literature.

3.—*Travels and Adventures in Mexico*, in the course of journeys of upwards of two thousand five hundred miles, performed on foot, etc., by William W. Carpenter, late of the United States Army. Harper & Brothers, New-York. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans, pp. 200.

The title of this book is a fair index of its contents. It is filled with narratives of interesting adventures, amid the relations of which is scattered, here and there, useful information respecting the character, habits, and customs of the higher, as well as the lower classes of Mexican society. Beside

this, there are given not invaluable notices of the mineral and agricultural resources of such parts of the country as were visited by the author in the course of his wearisome and dangerous pilgrimage. The style of composition is simple, and well suited to the subject.

4.—*Memoir of the Rev. Edward Bickersteth*, by the Rev. T. R. Birks, M. A.; with an Introduction by S. H. Tyng, D. D. Harper and Brothers, New-York; J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans. 2 vols. pp. 398 and 409.

To those who delight in reading the memoirs of men distinguished for piety, these volumes will afford a rich treat. Few ministers of the present day have become so well known for zeal, for ardent and unceasing labors in the cause of religion, as the late Rev. Edward Bickersteth. His name will long be remembered in England; nor will the recollection of it die out speedily in America. The memoir was written and is published in accordance with the request of Mr. Bickersteth himself, made during his last and fatal illness. "Let it be made clear," said he, speaking of the proposed biography, "that my only ground and confidence is the Lord Jesus Christ, Christ first, Christ last, Christ all in all." The story of his life shows how truly he spoke of the guiding hopes and motives of his earthly pilgrimage.

5.—*The Stone-Mason of Saint Point, a Village Tale*, by A. De Lamartine; translated from the French. New-York, Harper and Brothers; New-Orleans, J. C. Morgan, pp. 144.

The peculiarities of Lamartine's style of writing are prominent in this new novelette from his pen. It will be read with avidity by those who admire the productions of this noted French author, and, for a time, French politician.

6.—*The Fate: A Tale of Stirring Times*, by G. P. R. James, Esq. Harper and Brothers, New-York; J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

Mr. James is one of the best romance writers now living; though, on account of his frequent appearance, his reputation as a novelist has, of late years, somewhat declined. "The Fate" was written since the author commenced residing on this side the Atlantic. It compares favorably with his previous productions.

7.—The 8th, 9th, 10th and 11th numbers of *London Labor and the London Poor*, by Henry Mayhew; and the 16th number of the *Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution*, by Benson J. Lossing, publications of the Harpers, are for sale in the city, at J. C. Morgan's, Exchange Place.

PERIODICALS.

The Edinburgh Review, July 1851.
Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine and Engineers' Journal, August and Sept. 1851.

Harpers' New Monthly Magazine, August, 1851.

The American Whig Review, New-York, August, 1851.

The United States Magazine and Democratic Review, N. Y., September, 1851.

The American Journal of Science and Arts, September, 1851.

Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, August and September, 1851.

The New-Orleans Medical and Surgical Journal, September, 1851.

The Monthly Law Reporter, Boston, August and September, 1851.

The Western Journal, St. Louis, July, 1851.

The Dollar Magazine, New-York, August, 1851.

Blackwood's Magazine, August, 1851.

Southern Literary Messenger, Richmond, August and September, 1851.

The Magnolia Magazine, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, July, 1851.

The Westminster Review, July, 1851.

Southern Parlor Magazine, Mobile, Alabama, August, 1851.

The Christian Examiner and Religious Miscellany, Boston, September, 1851.

The Plough, the Loom, and the Anvil, Philadelphia, August and September, 1851.

Farmer and Planter, Pendleton, South Carolina, September, 1851.

The Literary World, in weekly numbers. New-York.

The notices of the above-mentioned periodicals, given in our late numbers, render unnecessary any particular mention of them at the present time. They are all worthy of patronage, and some of them are altogether essential to one who desires to keep pace with the current literature, and with science in its several departments. Money could not be more profitably invested than it would be in subscriptions to the most important of these publications.

J. C. MORGAN'S LITERARY DEPOT,
Exchange Place, adjoining the Post-Office, New-Orleans. The New Books received, from Sept. 15th:

The Microscopist; or a Complete Manual on the use of the Microscope. By Joseph H. Wythes, D. D.

A Manual of Roman Antiquities. By Chas. Anthon, LL. D.

Memoir of the Rev. Edward Bickersteth. By the Rev. T. R. Birks.

Elements of General and Pathological Anatomy. By David Graigie, M. D.

Loomis's Elements of Algebra.

The U. S. Post-Office Guide. By Eli Bowen.

Travels in the United States. By Lady Emmeline Stuart Wortley. Fresh supply.

Adventures and Travels in Mexico. By William W. Carpenter, late of the U. S. Army.

Louisiana, its Colonial History and Romance. By the Hon. Charles Gayarre. Fresh supply.

The History of the Empress Josephine. By John S. C. Abbott.

The Nile Boat; or, Glimpses of the Land of Egypt. By W. H. Bartlott.

Hildreth's History of the United States. Second series, Vol. 2.

The Girlhood of Shakespeare's Heroines. By Mary Cowdon Clarke.

Elements of Analytical Geometry. By Albert E. Church.

Cuba in 1851; A Survey of the Island, its Resources, Statistics, etc. By Alexander Jones.

The Literature and Literary Men of Great Britain and Ireland. By A. Mills.

The History of the Restoration of the Monarchy in France. By A. De Lamertine.

Novels.

Godfrey Malvern; or, the Life of an Author. By Thos. Miller, with 24 Illustrations.

The Stone Mason of Saint Point. A Village Tale. By A. De Lamartine.

Stuart of Dunleath. By the Hon. Caroline Norton. Fresh supply.

Ralph Rutherford; or, a Nautical Romance. By Sir Admiral Fisher.

The Fate; a Tale of Stirring Times. By G. F. R. James.

Sunbeams and Shadows. By Geo. A. Hulce.

Jo; a Tale of the Olden Fane. By K. Barton.

Arthur Conway; or, Scenes in the Tropics. By Capt. E. H. Milman.

Six Years Later; or, The Taking of the Bastille. By Alexander Dumas.

Alban; a Tale of the New World. By the Author of Lady Alice.

Self-Deception; or, the History of a Human Heart. By Mrs. Ellis. Part 2.

The London Medical Student. By Punch.

Lewis Arundel; or, the Rail-road of Life. By the Author of Frank Farleigh, with numerous Illustrations.

Drayton; a Story of American Life.

Matilda Montgomerie; or, the Prophecy Fulfilled. By Major Richardson.

Kenneth; a Romance of the Highlands. By G. W. M. Reynolds.

The Wedding Dress. By Alexander Dumas.

The Reveries of an Old Maid, embracing important hints to Young Men.

MEDICAL COLLEGE OF LOUISIANA.

We call attention with pleasure to the annexed advertisement of this distinguished and most flourishing institution. The buildings are capacious, and on a very splendid scale. The museum is one of the most complete and costly in the country, twenty-five thousand dollars having been expended upon it. The anatomical and pathological departments are very complete. The chemical and philosophical apparatus, specimens of materia medica, plates, paintings, models, books, instruments, &c., were selected in Europe with great care. The use of the New-Orleans hospital is at the service of the college, the admissions into which, number in a single year about 20,000 cases of every variety of disease. The number of students in 1850-51, was 188, from all of the southern and western states.

MEDICAL COLLEGE.

The Lectures commence on the 17th of November, and continue four months.

JAMES JONES, M. D., Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine.

WARREN STONE, M. D., Professor of Surgery.

J. L. RIDDELL, M. D., Professor of Chemistry.

A. H. CENAS, M. D., Professor of Obstetrics, and of the Diseases of Women and Children.

A. J. WEDDERBURN, M. D., Professor of Anatomy.

GUSTAVUS A. NOTT, M. D., Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics.

THOMAS HUNT, M. D., Professor of Physiology and Pathology.

Y. R. LE MONNIER, M. D., Demonstrator of Anatomy.

TERMS:—For the Ticket of each Professor, \$15; for the Ticket of Practical Anatomy, \$10; Matriculation Fee, \$5; Diploma Fee, \$30.

Fees for tickets required in advance.

Lectures and attendance in the Hospital, gratuitous.

Graduates of all respectable schools will be admitted to the course without charge.

Students requiring information on this and other subjects, will please address themselves to the Dean.

GUSTAVUS A. NOTT, M. D., Dean.

IMPROVED COTTON PRESS.

On the second page of the cover of our Review, appears an advertisement of the McComb Labor-Saving Cotton Press, which is now being adopted throughout Louisiana and Mississippi, to the exclusion of all others. We visited the manufacturers' establishment the other day, at Memphis, Tennessee, and found a large and efficient force actively engaged in the preparation of these presses. The demand is already nearly equal to the capacities of supply. The use of a large machinery is secured for the iron work. The press has now been proved upon three crops, to be the cheapest from its great durability and power, and will, no doubt, effect a great revolution in making the planters their own press-men, thus obviating the expense of repressmen in the commercial cities. One of these presses may be seen at the Pickery in New-Orleans, in the rear of the Gas Works. We recommend the improvement to the attention of the whole cotton interest.

The following planters have the press in use, from whom information may be had if desired:

Thos. W. Beck, Rodney P. O. Jefferson co. Miss.

James Grafton, Ft. Gibson " Claiborne " "

Dr. M. W. Phillips, Edw's Depot, Hinds " "

Capt. R. N. Downine, Raymond " " "

S. Worthington, Worthington's Point P. O., Washington co., Miss.

Dr. E. Kilpatrick, " " "

Dr. J. M. Brooks, " " "

John Warren, " " "

John H. Robb, " " "

Dr. W. B. Kead, Sr., Providence P. O., Carroll Parish, La.

G. S. Kauler & Co., Pickery, New-Orleans, opposite the Gas Works.

Many other names might be added, but these are deemed sufficient as references, to satisfy any planter of the character of this machine.

The following persons are authorized agents:

G. W. Sizer, New-Orleans; S. Zimmerman & Co., Vicksburg, Miss.; I. D. Spear & Co., Mobile, Ala.; J. C. Hewitt & Co., Louisville, Ky.; S. P. Bernard, Providence, La.



Wrote to
Mr. Bates.

AGRICULTURIST OF ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI

Engraved by F. Garech expressly for De Bow's Review New Orleans.

NO. 13.

Printed by Niles & Pott

Gallery of Industry & Enterprise

